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ABSTRACT

The report on developing community services identifies effective alternative administrative structures and funding patterns which have enabled or could enable Title I efforts in the State of California to be expanded, continued, or adopted when Title I funding to institutions is diminished or terminated. The first of the report's six chapters is an introduction and overview. Chapter 2 describes the research methodology employed. Chapter 3 discusses the diversity of perspectives and interpretations which have been attached to such terms as continuing education, community service, community development, and public service, and offers a means of clarification based on the distinction between education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented Title I projects. Chapter 4 focuses on the nature of the strengthening and continuing process of continuing education and community services through developmental funding which has, in some cases, occurred as a result of the intervention of Federal Title I funding. Chapter 5 discusses the primary variables which have been found to affect the strengthening and continuing process for various types of efforts, and presents general conditions which have been found to be important to the continuation or persistence of community service efforts. Chapter 6 provides a summary and general conclusions of the study. (Author/JR)

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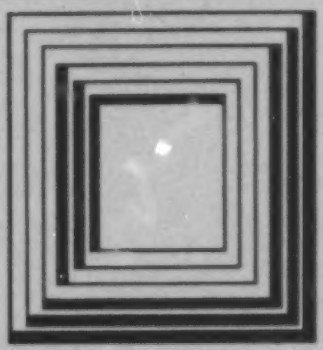

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, LOS ANGELES

DEVELOPING COMMUNITY SERVICES IN THE SEVENTIES: NEW ROLES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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CE 004 894

A Report Prepared for the California Postsecondary Education Commission

DEVELOPING COMMUNITY SERVICES IN THE SEVENTIES:

NEW ROLES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

A Research Report on the
Title I (HEA, 1965) Program in California, 1966-1974

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In Collaboration With
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A Report Prepared for the California Postsecondary Education Commission
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FOREWORD

In May 1972 a statewide evaluation of Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 was published under the sponsorship of the Coordinating Council for Higher Education. That evaluation report was in response to an RFP (Request for Proposal) that was initiated by the Council staff. The project focused on the study and assessment of Title I programs in California from 1966-1971.

The present report is, to some extent, a continuation/expansion of that earlier report but with a different emphasis. Primarily, this program which has been funded by the Postsecondary Education Commission aims to focus on the strengthening of educational linkages leading to adoption of programs and functions developed or proposed under Title I. The main objective, therefore, of this project is to identify effective alternative administrative structures and funding patterns which have enabled or could enable Title I efforts in the State of California to be expanded, continued, or adopted when Title I funding to institutions is diminished or terminated.

The project calls for a method of gathering information and conceptualizations from a variety of sources and from several other role perspectives. It focuses on various types of information that have been gathered from: (1) literature relating to the funding and administration of Title I; (2) project reports from 1971-1973; (3) feedback from in-process consultation with Title I staff; (4) feedback from institutional administrators; (5) feedback from national consultants dealing with higher education, Office of Education, and the Congress.

Essentially, the functional flow of activities as they relate to the information cited above, has proceeded in the following manner. In seeking information from various sources of literature and reports, the authors of this report have attempted to gain greater perspective on the nature of the administrative structures and funding patterns of Title I projects over time; the authors have also reviewed documents relating to the problem including: (a) National Title I reports; (b) NUEA statements or journal articles related to Title I; (c) statements of the Congress or Legislature; (d) Title I Agency's statements of the Congress or Legislature; (e) proposals; (f) quarterly and final reports from Title I projects in California for the funding period, 1971-1973; and (g) a comparative review of selected Title I programs in California.

In-process consultations with the Title I staff, project directors, and with other institutional and community representatives knowledgeable about the progress of Title I project activities, have provided information to the investigating team regarding decisions relating to: (a) access to relevant literature and project reports; (b) timing for conducting seminars/workshops; (c) selection of interviewees and seminar participants, and finally, writing the final report.

It has become evident from consultations with various groups of people (consultants, administrators, project directors, community leaders, and other individuals knowledgeable about this program) that this report has provided a greater insight both for administrator and community people, as to possible avenues that might be open as alternative sources of funding should Title I funds be diminished or terminated. This report serves as a "link" to the earlier publication written by the same authors.

Dr. Russell L. Riese, who supervises the unit on Federal Programs under which Title I is presently located administratively; P. Cecie Fontanoza now acting as the Title I State Coordinator; and the Title I staff, express their sincere appreciation to the authors of this report for providing a continuous effort–a follow through of the statewide evaluation report of Title I programs in California.

Russell L. Riese
P. Cecie Fontanoza
Federal Programs

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

J. David Deshler, Principal Author: David Deshler received his B.A. from Whittier College, his M.Th. from Claremont, and his Ed.D. from the University of California, Los Angeles. Since 1973 he has served as a Public Administrative Analyst at the Graduate School of Education, UCLA. During 1974-1975 he also served as Organizational Development Consultant to California State University, Long Beach.

The courses taught by Dr. Deshler through the UCLA Adult Education Teacher Training Consortium have included: "Principles of Adult Education," and "Methods and Materials in Adult Education." An additional course, "Evaluation of Broad-Aimed Education Programs," has also been offered through the Extension Division of the University of California, Davis.

Dr. Deshler is a co-author with Dr. James A. Farmer, Jr. and Dr. Paul H. Sheats of *Developing Community Service and Continuing Education Programs in California Higher Education Institutions* (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972), which was an evaluation of the Title I (HEA, 1965) programs in California, 1966-1971. In addition to his academic activities, he has served as a board member of a local community action agency of OEO, president of a county mental health association, and as program consultant to numerous community educational groups and agencies.

James A. Farmer, Jr., Principal Consultant: James Farmer received his B.A. from Hamilton College and his M.A. and Ed.D. degrees from Columbia University in higher and adult education with a specialization in adult education. While at Columbia University he was an administrator for the Center for Community Education, Teachers College, a project funded by the Ford Foundation. Dr. Farmer served as an Assistant Professor of Adult Education in the Graduate School of Education, UCLA, between 1969 and 1974. At the present time he is an Associate Professor of Adult Education in the College of Education, University of Illinois.

In the field of evaluation, Dr. Farmer was the Principal Investigator in a statewide evaluation of Title I (HEA, 1965) programs in California, 1966-1971. He was principal author of *Developing Community Services and Continuing Education Programs in California Higher Education Institutions* (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972). He also had served as an evaluation consultant to World Education in an International Workshop for Evaluation Specialists on Non-Formal Education for Functional Literacy and Family Life Planning, Thailand, 1974.

Currently, Dr. Farmer is Principal Investigator of a "sister" project to this study, entitled "Alternative Patterns for Strengthening Community Service Programs in Institutions of Higher Education." This University of Illinois-based project is gathering data from institutions of higher education in Connecticut, Colorado, Georgia, Minnesota, Oklahoma, and Tennessee.

In addition to being a member of the Research Commission of the Adult Education Association of the USA and Associate Editor of *Adult Leadership*, he is President-Elect of the Adult Education Association of the USA.

Paul H. Sheats, Principal Investigator: Paul H. Sheats joined the University of California in 1946 as Associate Director and second-ranking officer of University of California Extension. In 1957 he became Director of University of Extension, and in 1958 was named Universitywide Dean of Extension. He also is Professor of Education at UCLA and since 1967 has served full-time in that post.

Before coming to the University, Dr. Sheats was Education Director of Town Hall in New York City. During World War II, he served as head of the Adult Education Section of the Office of War Information. He has been Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Wisconsin, instructor of education at Yale University, and instructor of government at New York State College for Teachers.

A member of many scholarly societies, Dr. Sheats is Past President of both the National University Extension Association and the Adult Education Association of the USA. He was appointed to the Adult Education Committee of the Master Plan Survey Team, which acted as architects for the Master Plan for Higher Education in California. For six years Dr. Sheats served on the UNESCO National Commission, and was also a member of President Kennedy's Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education.

Dr. Sheats received his A.B. degree from Heidelberg College (Ohio), his M.A. from Columbia University, and his Ph.D. from Yale in 1936. He also holds an honorary LL.D. from Akron University.

Two recent awards to Dr. Sheats have been presented by the National University Extension Association and the Adult Educators of Greater Los Angeles.

Beverly Kaye, Research Assistant: Beverly Kaye has complemented her experience in student personnel administration at Brandeis University and Pomona College with training in management and organizational development. In addition to designing and developing life planning and management development workshops as co-director of futureFOCUS, she is a consultant to a variety of business, educational, and health care organizations. She was the recipient of a Change Managers Fellowship at UCLA and is presently completing her doctorate in adult education.

Adele Scheele, Research Assistant: Adele Scheele has used her experience as a teacher, labor negotiator, and counselor to build a career in social design. Completing her Ph.D. in adult education, her major interests are career planning, adult transitions, and helping individuals gain control of their lives. She was the recipient of a Change Managers Fellowship at UCLA and served as an officer of Social Engineering Technology. She helped develop futureFOCUS, a life-planning service for women.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Approximately one year of collaborative effort has gone into the production of this report and not all of those involved can be identified in this brief statement. The project was initially conceptualized by James A. Farmer, Jr., then Assistant Professor of Education, UCLA. His decision to accept an appointment as Associate Professor of Education at the University of Illinois became effective July 1, 1974. With the understanding assistance of the Title I staff in the California Postsecondary Education Commission, we were able to redefine staff roles and to adjust budgetary provisions. Professor Farmer in the role of project consultant was able to exercise overall leadership and contribute critical inputs to the development of the final report.

J. David Deshler, under my general supervision, became the project coordinator. He devoted full-time attention to the administrative management of the project and to the data collection which involved field interviews throughout the state. While other members of the study team assisted in the preparation of the various drafts of the written document, Dr. Deshler must be recognized as the principal author. As principal investigator after July 1, 1974, I am particularly grateful to him for his outstanding contribution.

Our graduate assistants, Beverly Kaye and Adele Scheele, who have both advanced with honors to the final stage of candidacy for their respective doctorates, contributed hours of time and expertise far beyond the rather meagre monetary rewards with which their efforts were recompensed. Their extensive experience in staff development training and human relations laboratories proved especially valuable in the interviewing stages of the data collection. But, their written drafts of sections of the report were equally important to the final version.

The members of the Study Team were especially fortunate in having a broadly representative National Advisory Committee. While not all of the suggestions they made could be incorporated in the final draft and while no one advisor can be held responsible for the content of the report, their contributions proved of inestimable value. The members of the Advisory Panel are:

Edward T. Brown, Project Director, Adult Basic Education, Southern Regional Education Board

Eugene E. DuBois, Executive Associate, American Association of Community and Junior Colleges

William S. Griffith, Department of Education, University of Chicago

Alan Knox, College of Education, University of Illinois

C. Richard Parkins, Associate Director, National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education

Robert J. Pitchell, Executive Director, National University Extension Association

Two faculty members within the University of California deserve special mention for their insightful comments on the draft report. They are:

Professor Allan M. Cartter, Director of the Higher Education Research Laboratory at UCLA

Professor Edward J. Blakely, Department of Applied Behavioral Sciences, University of California, Davis

For assistance in layout and publication detail, we are grateful to Barbara McCaslin; for administrative and secretarial support we thank both Sally Anderson and the Communications Processing Center staff who did a superb job on the preparation of the final copy; Lee Hein, Business Administrator, and his staff who gave frequent counsel and back-up support on the fiscal and accounting tasks connected with the federally-supported contract. We are most appreciative.

The cordiality and mutual respect which characterized relationships between the Study Team and the members of the Title I staff in the Postsecondary Education Commission were a source of special satisfaction to me. Dr. Russell L. Riese, with whom I have had the privilege of working over the many years of his service to the Coordinating Council for Higher Education, particularly on aspects of the Council's work related to adult and continuing education, deserves special mention and my continuing respect. P. Cecie Fontanoza, who was Assistant Coordinator in charge of our project, generously gave of her time and administrative acumen on many occasions throughout the project's life.

Finally, we must not overlook those upon whose inputs the study depended, the interviewees. We sincerely hope that we have accurately reflected what we learned and that our findings will be of more than incidental help in the achievement of the educational purposes to which Title I (HEA, 1965) was directed.

Paul H. Sheats
Professor of Education
UCLA

April 29, 1975

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The federal government in recent years has provided extensive funds to higher education in the form of grants for developmental programs. This "soft" project money has, in most cases, been matched with institutional funds. The federal government and administrators in higher education view federally funded developmental programs as promising. According to Kno (1972, p. 26), "Developmental programs offer great opportunities not only to improve diversity in the American educational system, but to *strengthen* those institutions which have clearly worked out plans for improvement which are consistent with the aspirations and capabilities of that institution."

The effects of these joint funding efforts are of concern to administrators, faculty, and students in higher education as well as to the community and the federal government. There is a need to develop improved alternative strategies for strengthening institutions in order to make it possible for developed programs to be continued after the termination of "soft" funding. According to one top-level administrator in an institution of higher education, there are a large number of good-to-excellent programs which were not (and perhaps could not be) continued once external money which supported them was withdrawn.

The developmental or "strengthening" intent of the Title I (HEA, 1965) Act, explicitly presented in the Act's statement of purpose (Section 101), is to assist "people of the United States in the solution of community problems by enabling the Commissioner to make grants under this title to *strengthen* community service programs of colleges and universities." "Community service programs" are defined in Section 102 of the Act as follows:

> For purposes of this title, the term "community service program" means an educational program, activity, or service, including a research program and a university extension or continuing education offering, which is designed to assist in the solution of community problems in rural, urban, or suburban areas, with particular emphasis on urban and suburban problems, where the institution offering such program, activity, or service determines–
>
> (1) that the proposed program, activity, or service is not otherwise available, and
>
> (2) that the conduct of the program or performance of the activity or service is consistent with the institution's overall educational program and is of such a nature as is appropriate to the effective utilization of the institution's special resources and the competencies of its faculty.

This study's report focuses on the processes by which community service programs are strengthened and/or continued in institutions of higher education as a result of Title I (HEA, 1965) projects in California. The study was designed to identify effective alternative administrative strategies and funding patterns which have enabled or can enable Title I efforts in

institutions of higher education to be expanded, continued, or adopted once federal funding has been curtailed or terminated.

In order to understand how the environmental context operated in relation to Title I efforts in California, it was necessary to appreciate the historical commitment made by higher education in California to continuing education, community service, and public service as well as the national and statewide trends which have affected continuing education and community services in institutions of higher education. A brief description of these forces follows.

HISTORICAL COMMITMENT TO CONTINUING EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY SERVICES OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN CALIFORNIA

From early University of California extension efforts, California higher education's involvement with adult populations and community services has evolved and grown. The University of California was one of the first land grant institutions to establish a University Extension service (1891). With the passage of the Smith-Lever Act in 1914, the University established an Agricultural Extension Service. Through these instrumentalities, the University's campuses were extended to the boundaries of the state and beyond. Today from nine campuses of the University and at 57 county offices, the University's resources are made available to the people in small and large communities.

The tradition of public service established by the creation and operation of Extension programs was extended through the California State University and Colleges system, which now numbers 19 campuses, and the 100 community colleges with continuing education and community service divisions. Many of the 98 independent colleges and universities in California developed special programs for part-time students and adults. It is not surprising, therefore, that California has twice as many persons in postsecondary education as any other state has.

Throughout the growth and expansion period of educational opportunities for adults and particularly with the advent of California's Master Plan for Higher Education in 1960, special attention was given to the coordination of adult education services.* The State Advisory Committee on Adult Education with representatives from the higher education segments in California, namely the University of California, the California State University and Colleges, and the community colleges, was established in 1958, and later, under the auspices of the Coordinating Council for Higher Education became the State Committee on Continuing Education. Private colleges and universities participated in the Committee's deliberations as did the California State Department of Education's Bureau of Adult Education. Representatives of the general public also served on the Advisory Committee. The Committee continued to advise the members and staff of the Coordinating Council after the passage of the Higher Education Act of 1965.

Under President Johnson's leadership, the Congress of the United States passed the Higher Education Act in 1965. Title I of the Act provides federal support to institutions of higher learning to enable them to assist the people of the U.S., through continuing education, in solving community problems.

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*California State Department of Education. *A Master Plan for Higher Education in California*, 1960-1975. Sacramento, California. 1960. See especially Chapter VIII, pp. 137-145.

TRENDS AFFECTING COMMUNITY SERVICES AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Sweeping changes throughout the world have had a tremendous impact on most aspects of human life. Warren (1970) identifies the following major influences that have led to change:

> (1) the increase in populations; (2) the movement of people to the cities; (3) the growth of cities and the spread of urban ways to the countryside; (4) the growth of industrial production and the switch to nonagricultural pursuits; (5) the division of labor and consequent multiplication of occupations; (6) the development of large-scale organizations, not only in government and industry, but also in labor unions, voluntary associations, educational organizations, political parties, and so on; (7) the growth of large formal organizations with comparative anonymity for the individual rather than face-to-face interaction based on common pursuits and shared values; (8) changes in the structure of family living; and (9) the decline of the locality as a focus of association and the growth of other foci of association such as employment in the same company or membership in the same union, or religious organization, or interest group (p. 35).

In this era of change, institutions of higher education also are confronted with new situations and populations that create new pressures and demands. The Director of UCLA's Laboratory for Research on Higher Education, Dr. Allan Cartter, points out in particular the force created by the growth in the number of nondegree students enrolling in institutions of higher learning. National nondegree totals rose from 129,000 in 1962 to 557,000 in 1972, and projections indicate that these trends will continue at least throughout the seventies (*Projections of Educational Statistics*, 1973). This is a five-fold increase while total full-time equivalency enrollment only doubled during this period.

Roger W. Heynes (1974, p. 23), President of the American Council on Education, in reference to the changing student population, writes: "over 50% of postsecondary-education students today are part-time, mostly employed, older, and seriously concerned with occupational needs." Other forces* our institutions of higher education face include:

1. *Changing Student Population.* (a) new categories of students in significant numbers including minorities, women, part-time and older students; (b) pressures from students for relevance, career-oriented education, and jobs; (c) mobility of the students; (d) egalitarianism, calling for a less elite and more representative student population.

2. *Tightening of Financial Resources in Institutions of Higher Education.* (a) lack of money for developmental programs in general, including for community services; (b) rising emphasis on an enrollment economy based on student tuitions; (c) pressure to expand the student population to bring in funds or justify programs.

3. *Increased Pressure for New Approaches to Education.* (a) movement of higher education off campus; (b) rising pressure for lifelong learning, including recurrent professional education; (c) increased numbers of and need for part-time degrees; (d) increased use of paraprofessionals in education; (e) pressure for and growth of

*These forces were identified at the first Higher Education and Community Service Invitational Seminar, San Diego, California, April 1974. See Chapter II, p.11 for further description of this event, part of the design of this study.

experiental education; (f) increasing importance of the differences between the types of institutions of higher education and differentiation of function; (g) pressure for open admissions.

4. *Increased Professional and Societal Pressures for Continuing Education and Community Service.* Yet within higher education community service as a function of higher education lacks credibility and, therefore, continues a marginal existence.

5. *Increased Pressure from the Community to Use the Resources of Institutions in Higher Education.* Increasingly complex societal problems demand analysis which the research function of higher education institutions may be able to provide.

The community problem-solving emphasis of Title I projects within the California system reflects a relatively new and limited concern for an educational need emphasized by the fourth and fifth forces cited above. It can be argued that traditionally the various segments of the formal educational establishment, including universities and colleges, have emphasized as their primary target the education of individuals, not the solution of community problems. Whether or not institutions of higher learning are now prepared to work directly with community groups in problem-solving activities is an issue that has not yet been resolved. Nevertheless, it is difficult to envision a "learning society" in which problems are solved without collective planning and action as well as through individual excellence and leadership.

There is considerable evidence from a study (Peterson, 1973) conducted in California that institutional goals related to public service and social change have lower priorities than those concerned with academic development. Moreover, there are significant differences in the order in which the four segments of higher education—the University of California, California State University and Colleges, the community colleges, and the private sector—rank each of the 18 dimensions studies. Asked "what should be" the role of their institution in Meeting Local Needs, for instance, rankings for the University of California and the CSUC segments are much lower than community colleges' rankings (pp. 76-85). On the equally important goal areas of Social Egalitarianism (defined as "a reaction against elitism") and Social Criticism/Activism (defined as being "an advocate or instrument for social change"), differences between the segments are even more marked. The University of California "should be" ranking for Social Egalitarianism is much lower than the "should be" ranking for community colleges. On the Social Criticism/Activism dimension, "all constituencies, across all four segments are quite similar in perceiving their institutions as attaching relatively little importance to this kind of goal" (p. 91). The "should be" scores for the community colleges are unexpectedly high (p. 95).

The Report of the Joint Committee on Postsecondary Education of the California Legislature (September 1973) is critical of the extent to which California's higher education institutions were carrying out public service:

> At our committee hearings leaders of California higher education seemed more interested in institutional and segmental self-sufficiency than in coordination of educational services to benefit the people of California.
>
> Institutional isolation and self-sufficiency is neither educationally nor economically sound. California's system of higher education must be viewed as a total resource to the state as a whole, and to each area in the state. Excessive emphasis upon institutional prerogatives and boundaries is a major barrier to maximizing the quality and quantity of education available to the people (p. 4).

As further evidence of dissatisfaction with the continuing education efforts of our existing institutions, the Joint Committee made the recommendation later in the Report that the state should establish a fourth segment of California public postsecondary education.

> We believe California should commit itself to extended learning where there is a need and clientele for this type of educational service. We have concluded that a statewide integrated effort is likely to be more effective than a fragmented effort with each segment defining its own goals and interests. We propose that a fourth public segment, the California Cooperative University, be established in California. It should have the primary responsibility for planning and coordinating off-campus programs and should be authorized to offer its own programs and award credits and degrees (p. 58).

Since this recommendation has been criticized roundly by officers of the existing segments as being both unnecessary and competitive with existing programs, no prediction as to future legislative action would be justified.

There is no evidence in the Joint Committee Report that the emphasis in Title I on community service and community problem solving should be reinforced and fiscally Supported by California institutions of higher education. The existence of complex and serious problems in all American communities is not questioned. What has not yet been clarified is the role, if any, which higher education should play in strengthening problem-solving and decision-making processes which are the cornerstones of an open and self-governing society.

Concerning earlier efforts of institutions of higher education to assist in community problem solving, Newman (1974) in a speech presented at the Higher Education and Community Service Invitational Seminar, part of this study warned:

> We are overpromised. We promised that we would resolve the questions of poverty and race relations, of urban decay, of disease, of the delivery of health care, in a quality environment. I think they (colleges and universities) are getting back to areas of objective criticism—of what we're doing in society and that finally they become vehicles for enormous changes in the social order, but only through the processes of education, not by attempting to be social action agencies themselves.

FOCUS OF THE STUDY

During the past nine years over 153 Title I (HEA, 1965) projects have been implemented in 287 institutions of higher education in California. Although approximately 5.3 million dollars of federal Title I funds came into the state during this period, the matching dollars from the participating universities and colleges amounted to 3.5 million which brings the total expenditure for Title I in California to approximately 8.8 million dollars. This investment made possible the conceptualization, implementation, and evaluation of a wide variety of efforts to strengthen community service programs of colleges and universities. While not all of the funded projects are in operation today, it is clear that because of Title I "community problems in the state have been solved with catalytic effect in ways and to an extent not otherwise possible" (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972, p. 81).

Nevertheless, project directors and administrators found it difficult to conceptualize and implement alternative administrative structures and patterns of funding that would insure continuation or adoption of programs initiated or proposed under Title I funding. Since 1965 at the outset of Title I, there has been a pervasive emphasis upon the use of Title I funding as "seed money" or as "catalyst money" through individual projects. Indications of the possibilities of Title I projects becoming part of an ongoing and self-sustaining program of community service, including potential sources for future support after termination of Title I funding, have been requested as part of each institution's application (Part D-9) in California for several years.

The struggle to insure that efforts begun under Title I were continued or adopted has been a project-by-project attempt. The experiences related to that struggle were not the focus of concern in the California evaluation of Title I (1966-1971). The evaluation did, however, indicate that the issue was statewide and that its solution could best be approached through a statewide effort which would draw data from the extensive experiences of those who had tried to sustain Title I projects.

Accordingly, this study of alternative administrative and funding patterns which provide for continuation, expansion, or adoption of Title I efforts was conducted. The results hopefully will provide guidance for future policy decisions at the federal, state, and local levels.

This report consists of five major segments including this Introduction and Overview. Chapter II provides a description of the research methodology that was employed. Chapter III discusses the diversity of perspectives and interpretations which have been attached to such terms as continuing education, community service, community development, and public service. A basis of clarification is presented.

Chapter IV focuses upon the nature of the strengthening and continuing process of continuing education and community services through developmental funding which has, in some cases, occurred as a result of the intervention of federal Title I (HEA, 1965) funding in California. The relationship of the Title I projects to their respective institutions of higher education and the aspects of the institutions that have been strengthened as a consequence of this relationship are also presented.

Chapter V discusses the primary variables which have been found to effect the strengthening and continuing process for various types of efforts. General conditions which have been found to be important to the continuation or persistence of community service efforts are presented as well as alternative strategies that have been used or could be used by practitioners in the continuation process. Chapter VI provides a summary and general conclusions of the study.

There is a deep-rooted and historically sound expectation in this country that education should serve the common good as well as individual needs. Coping with social change and its consequences has become for some a full-time occupation. The idea that our citadels of learning should remain outside the mainstream of efforts to help cope with social change is likely to receive short shrift from citizens engaged in a struggle for survival. Traditional education has not adequately met this need. All citizens are candidates for continuing education, it is time for our institutions of higher learning to re-assess their priorities and to generate new ways of serving the common good.

That some redefinitions of higher education's role in our society are imminent seems scarcely debatable. As John Gardner (1972, p. 20) has said, "We support a vast and intricate public machinery that does not in fact serve human needs. The consequences in unsolved public problems are familiar to everyone. Our society today is a society that has almost lost its capacity to manage itself." Historically, we have, as a body politic, generously supported public education with faith and money, not only to maximize human potentialities but also to assist in the management of change in the common good. This project seeks to understand how the major resource of higher learning can be strengthened and continued for more effective and feasible utilization in community problem-solving efforts.

CHAPTER II

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study used "quasi-experimental" or "naturalistic" research, that is, research in which the investigator takes natural settings, already established and functioning, and adds a data collection dimension so that some conclusion about relative effectiveness can be reached (Fox, 1969, p. 453). An objective, systematic analysis of naturalistic experimental activities was conducted in this study in order to assist future Title I efforts in the State of California.

Beginning in July 1974, a two-year "sister" project with similar objectives and methodologies was funded through Discretionary Funds from the national Title I office under Title I, Section 106, the Higher Education Act of 1965, as amended. The "sister" project, entitled "Alternative Patterns for Strengthening Community Service Programs in Institutions of Higher Education," is directed by James A. Farmer, Jr. at the University of Illinois, Urbana. A liaison relationship was established between the two projects. In the Illinois-based project, data are being obtained in institutions of higher education in Connecticut, Colorado, Georgia, Minnesota, Oklahoma, and Tennessee. Although the findings of the California project are not generalizable beyond that State, they will supplement the final report of the national study. Thus the findings and recommendations in the two reports will be made more widely generalizable than would otherwise be possible.

FUNCTIONAL FLOW OF ACTIVITIES

The following research activities were completed in this project:

1. Literature related to Title I was reviewed.
2. Proposals, reports, and evaluation of all Title I programs in California (1971-1973) were reviewed.
3. Elite and specialized interviews were conducted with selected persons related in Title I programs in 35 institutions of higher education in California.
4. Three transactive seminars were conducted involving approximately 125 participants who were selected according to institution and role.
5. In-process consultations about the project were conducted periodically with the Title I staff of the California Postsecondary Education Commission.
6. Data were analyzed and the research findings are presented in this report.

The project's functional flow of activities was designed to take into consideration the interrelationships between the various activities so that a cooperative and evolutionary sequencing could occur. The activities and their timing are depicted in Figure 1. The national consultation with J. Eugene Weldon in Washington, D.C. in November 1974 was conducted by James A. Farmer, Jr.

In a previous project, also funded by the California Coordinating Council for Higher Education, a methodology for conducting evaluative research of Title I programs in California was developed and implemented. That methodology, described in considerable detail in that study's report (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972, pp. 13-26) has been adopted for use in the present study. The 1972 evaluative research project assessed the statewide effort of Title I in California between 1966 and 1971, including the ways in which Title I projects were implemented through institutions and the consequences of these implementations. The present project does not attempt to replicate the 1972 evaluation, but instead focuses on the problem of strengthening and continuing community service efforts, a problem that was initially identified during the data analysis and in-process consultation stages of the 1972 evaluative research project. A primary task in the present project was to diagnose and clarify the nature of that problem. As the study progressed and as various research components were completed, the nature of the problem became clearer and could be more adequately understood. Factors that enabled or could enable Title I efforts in the State of California to be expanded, continued, or adopted when Title I funding to institutions was curtailed or terminated were examined.

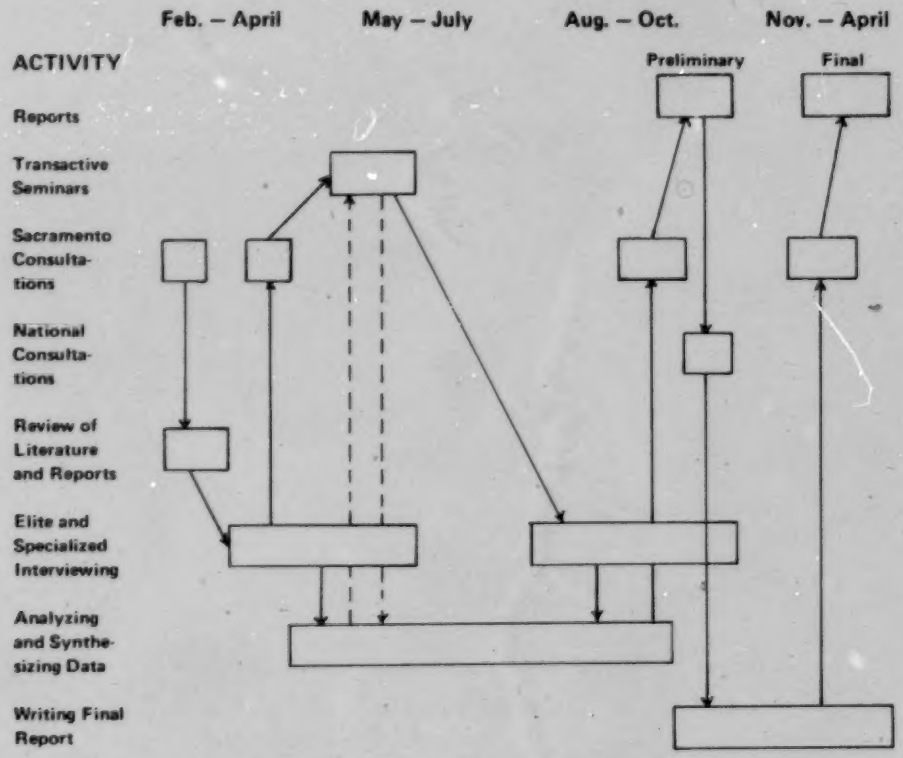


FIGURE 1: Functional Flow of Activities of the Project, Alternative Future Pattern for Community Services and Continuing Education in California

IN-PROCESS CONSULTATIONS

Consultations took place periodically between the Title I staff of the California Postsecondary Commission and the project staff concerning:

1. Access to relevant literature and project reports
2. Timing for conducting transactive seminars
3. Selection of interviewees and transactive seminar participants
4. The nature of the final report

Through in-process consultations, members of the Title I staff of the California Postsecondary Education Commission were made acquainted with the study's emerging findings and were helped to clarify, diagnose, and suggest alternative solutions to the problem of strengthening and continuing community service efforts through Title I as it has been experienced at the local and statewide levels.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND REPORTS

To gain perspective on the nature of administrative structures and funding patterns over time, the project team reviewed documents that related to the problem including: (a) national Title I reports; (b) reports of the California Coordinating Council for Higher Education recently reconstituted as the California Postsecondary Education Commission; (c) proposals, quarterly reports, and final reports from Title I projects in California; and (d) books and journal articles dealing with primary or secondary aspects of the problem addressed in the project.

SAMPLING PROCEDURE

A large number of persons were involved in Title I projects throughout California between 1966 and 1974. Many of them were knowledgeable about the problem addressed in the study. Due to time and budget limitations, dimensional sampling (Arnold, 1970) was used to identify interviewees who had participated in or were knowledgeable about Title I projects. Dimensional sampling has been described by Arnold as follows:

> Briefly, the approach is a three-step one: (1) explicitly delineate the universe to which you eventually wish to generalize; (2) spell out what appear to be the most important dimensions along which the members of this universe vary and develop a typology that includes the various combinations of values on these dimensions; (2) use this typology as a sampling frame for selecting a small number of cases from the universe, typically drawing one case from each cell of the typology (p. 147).

The dimensions that were used for sampling purposes were:

1. The type of institutions of higher education: (a) the University of California, (b) the California State University and Colleges, (c) the California community colleges, and (d) private institutions of higher education in California.
2. Extent of Title I funding: (a) short-term Title I funding, (b) longer-term Title I funding at various levels.
3. Geographic location in the state: (a) Northern California, (b) Central California, (c) the Sacramento area, (d) the San Francisco area, (e) the Los Angeles area, and (f) the San Diego area.
4. Nature of the Title I project: (a) faculty involvement model, (b) student involvement model, (c) agency involvement model, (d) target population involvement model, (e) transactive involvement model, and (f) comprehensive involvement model. Each of these involvement models and their strengths and weakness were described in the 1972 study (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972, pp. 35-70).
5. Role definition: (a) project directors, (b) administrators of institutions of higher education, (c) faculty members, and (d) students.

Interviews were conducted in each of 35 institutions of higher education. The distribution of field interviews according to type of institutions including community agencies is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Distribution of Field Interviews According to Type of Institution

Type of Institution	Number of Institutions in Which Interviewing was Conducted	Number of Interviews
Community Colleges	19	68
California State Universities and Colleges	10	60
University of California	5	35
Private Colleges and Universities	1	2
Community Agencies	16	16
	51	181

The distribution of field interviews according to type of interviewee is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Distribution of Field Interviews According to Type of Interviewees

Type of Interviewees	Number of Interviews
Administrators and Trustees	64
Financial and Grant Officers	14
Project Staff	51
Faculty	34
Agency Personnel and Students	18
Total	181

ELITE AND SPECIALIZED INTERVIEWING

At each institution data were obtained through the use of elite and specialized interviewing (Dexter, 1970). The interviews were conducted by the members of the University of California, Los Angeles-based project team. Elite and specialized interviewing is done with an interview plan which is more flexible than an interview schedule. The interviews consisted of a series of questions generated by a review of the Title I literature, in-process consultations with state Title I personnel, and transactive seminars (described below). The types of questions that were asked of project directors, administrators, faculty members, and students appear in Appendix A. According to Dexter:

> An elite interview is an interview with any interviewee--and the stress should be on the word "any"--who in terms of the current purposes of the interviewer is given special, nonstandardized treatment. By special, nonstandardized treatment I mean
>
> 1. stressing the interviewee's definition of the situation
> 2. encouraging the interviewee to structure the account of the situation
> 3. letting the interviewee introduce to a considerable extent (an extent which will of course vary from project to project and from interviewer to interviewer) his notions of what he regards as relevant, instead of relying upon the investigator's notions of relevance.
>
> Put another way, in standardized interviewing--and in much seemingly nonstandardized interviewing, too (for instance, in Merton's "focused interview" in its pure form)--the investigator defines the question and the problem; he is only looking for answers within the bounds set by his presuppositions. In elite interviewing, as here defined, however, the investigator is willing and often eager to let the interviewee teach him what the problem, the question, the situation is--to the limits, of course, of the interviewer's ability to perceive relationships to his basic problems, whatever these may be.
>
> In the standard interview, the typical survey, a deviation is ordinarily handled statistically; but in an elite interview, an exception, a deviation, an unusual interpretation may suggest a revision, a reinterpretation, an extension, a new approach. In an elite interview it cannot at all be assumed--as it is in typical survey--that the persons or categories of persons are important (1970, pp. 5-6).

TRANSACTIVE SEMINARS

Three transactive seminars were conducted as part of the project. A transactive seminar brings persons from different role perspectives together to enter into dialogue about real problems in order to facilitate what Dunn (1971, p. 210) calls "creative social learning." The seminars in this study were used to identify trends affecting community service in higher education, to diagnose the problem addressed by the project, and to identify effective administrative funding, and other variables for expanding and continuing efforts started by Title I funding once monies from that source were no longer available.

The seminars were designed and conducted cooperatively by the members of the project

staff and Miss Dana Dunn, who headed a project entitled "Higher Education and Community Service Invitational," which was also funded by the California Postsecondary Education Commission. By combining the efforts of the two project's staffs, both the specific problem addressed by the current study and additional issues identified by the directors of Title I project in California could be addressed in these transactive seminars. Rather than detracting from the current study, the combined efforts made it possible for more contextual variables to be examined than would have otherwise been possible.

Frank Newman, President of the University of Rhode Island and chief spokesman for a national task force report on higher education, and K. Patricia Cross, Research Psychologist at the Educational Testing Service in Berkeley and the then President of the American Association for Higher Education, made substantive contributions to the seminars. Table 3 presents the location of each of these seminars and the number of participants at each.

TABLE 3

Distribution of Participants at Higher Education and County Service Invitation Transactive Seminars

Place of Seminar	Date	Number of Participants
San Diego	4-23-74	38
Los Angeles	5-22-74	57
Santa Barbara	6-11-74	30
Total		125*

*Note: The total number of different individuals is less than this total because some persons attended more than one workshop.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis of data obtained from review of the literature, in-process consultation, elite and specialized interviewing, and from the three transactive seminars was accomplished primarily through the use of one or more of the following types of content analysis:

1. *Symbol-counts:* Consists of identifying and counting specified key symbols in communication.
2. *One-dimensional classification of symbols:* This is a slight elaboration of the previous type. Symbols are classified according to whether they are employed, broadly speaking, in positive (favorable) or negative (unfavorable) contexts.
3. *Item-analysis:* Classification of segments of sections of data. This requires selection of significant and insignificant items on the basis of a theory.
4. *Thematic analysis:* Classification of the explicit and implicit (symbolic) themes in the data. This, as distinct from item-analysis, deals with the supposed cumulative significance of a series of items.
5. *Structural analysis:* Concerned with the interrelations of the various themes in the data. These relations may be *complementary* or *interfering* (Merton, 1968, p. 569).

Thematic analysis was of particular value in analyzing the data. Some explicit or implicit themes were identified that pertained to all types of Title I projects examined. In other

instances, these were identified which were relevant to Title I projects in only one type of institution of higher education in the state or to institutions in only one part of the state. In some cases themes were identified that pertained only to one institution but which presented alternative ways of diagnosing the problem addressed or alternative ways of coping with the problem elsewhere.

The data analysis process included the following steps:

1. The data were evaluated in order to correct for substantive influences and objective distortion through the use of an interrater reliability process.
2. The data were scanned for the purpose of identifying inductive categories which consisted of general themes, structures, functions, patterns, and variables. Independent readers nominated these inductive categories.
3. The nominated inductive categories were synthesized and evaluated according to the adequacy of their inclusiveness and congruence in relationship to the variability of segments of the data.
4. The inductive categories that were arrived at through the above process then were used to classify all segments and subsegments of the data. Further content analysis was conducted on each segment of the data.
5. As part of the process of content analysis of segments of the data, all the data were repeatedly scanned in order to identify relationships between each inductive category and the rest of the data.
6. Emergent generalizations were compared, contrasted, or synthesized with deductive generalizations from the literature including other related studies.
7. Generalizations were drawn from the whole, subsegments, and segments of the data and were reported according to their being based on: (a) empirical conclusions or (b) summaries of opinions and beliefs of interviewees or (c) theoretical projections from research judgments. Interrater reliability was used during this process.

CHAPTER III

PERSPECTIVES AND INTERPRETATIONS

For those who seek to conceptualize, conduct, and evaluate research in the field of continuing education and community service in institutions of higher education, this is a time for clarifying perspectives and interpretations. Most practitioners and administrators who were interviewed as part of this study reported that the continuing education and community service field is in a period of change. They emphasized that conceptual categories are still flexible and opportunities exist to determine directions for the future. The following is a typical statement by a Title I project director:

> *This is a time of change for continuing education and community service. Things are unfrozen now. It will freeze up again soon. The die is not cast yet. We can make changes now in an open ball game for the next several years. Extension people, community development people, and Title I project personnel have an opportunity now to determine the new directions of higher education. They have to move to the center with new proposals. Most of what needs changing cannot be accomplished by just making additions or patching up what we have. It's a time to come into the bright lights.*

An associate vice president in a state university also outlined the nature of the task of clarifying perspectives:

> *Community service and continuing education is proliferating. The big problem we face is relating these parts to the whole. We need to go to the literature on planning. There is a term which Constance Doxiadis uses called "ekistics." It refers to the problem of dealing systematically with boxes of things which have been in isolation and finding new ways of relating them together. It's a problem for us in continuing education and community services to bring the parts together to form new realities. We believe that doing this is the wave of the future for higher education.*

During the interviews, administrators often shared with the research staff the ways in which they were changing their thinking about continuing education and community services. Some were in the process of reorganizing the structure of their organizations. Others were redefining terms. The following quotations are examples:

> *The terms community service and continuing education are being used differently in various institutions. What is critical is the changing of the mindset of faculty and students which tends to restrict learning to the campus. We have to break ourselves of that mindset and think of our university as the region of our service area. It just happens that there are buildings here in this city and that some of the university's students happen to learn here. But, the resources of the entire region have to be identified and made available to everybody. The campus is the region. Ten years from now I don't think that we will*

understand the old language of community service and continuing education. There is a new way of viewing these things through lifelong learning and through using the community as a learning laboratory.

I believe that in several years we will no longer make the artificial distinction between on-campus and off-campus functions of higher education. We will no longer view continuing education as self-supporting and on-campus education as being supported by tax dollars. We will have to find ways to serve all of the citizens of our region.

We have recently reorganized our continuing education efforts under a dean of extended learning. It takes in all parts of the university theoretically. It puts university extension, cooperative extension, external degrees, summer session, and educational television all under the same umbrella.

The relationship between community services and the rest of the campus is in the process of being rethought. We need to come up with a new conceptualization in order to relate our new programs to the faculty and their ideas of the nature of higher education. We are talking about forming a human development institute which would include community development, student support services, career development services, extended instructional and TV programs, cooperative education, and the regular lecture, forum, and concert programs. The isolation of traditional departments is not functional.

Through the review of the literature and the process of interviewing, the research team encountered a rich diversity of perspectives on and interpretations of continuing education and community service in institutions of higher education. The greatest diversity surrounded the following five major issues: (1) clarification of definitions, (2) categorizations of program implementations, (3) perspectives on consequences, (4) contrasts of program development directions, and (5) alternative interpretations of the Title I Act. This chapter describes briefly the variety of perspectives and interpretations surrounding each of these issues as reflected in the data. Suggestions for making distinctions and clarifications are presented.

CLARIFICATION OF DEFINITIONS

The failure to arrive at a high degree of consensus about the meanings and definitions of continuing education, community service, community problem solving, community development, and public service has led to some miscommunication among those who fund, implement, evaluate, and do research on Title I (HEA, 1965) efforts. It is not that these concepts are novel or without roots in American experience; it is rather that there are no single definitions which are universally accepted and consistently used. The tendency among practitioners in this rapidly growing field is to define these terms within the limits of their own immediate experience or within the conceptual constraints of a particular college or university. The diversity of definitions, apparently, is due to and reflects the extensive variety of implementations. Some definitions are very broad and inclusive while others are very narrow and exclusive. The Title I Act itself reflects this diversity and does not go far enough in clarifying its own terms. Misunderstandings will not be overcome through arbitrary decisions pertaining to value-laden terms, nor by arriving at a consensus which, in effect, eliminates important distinctions and intersections. What is called for is the difficult task of analyzing the nature of many definitions, while at the same time appreciating the richness of the diversity of their perspectives.

Schroeder (1970, pp. 25-43), in attempting to define and describe the field of adult education, has used a framework from the work of Upton and Samson (1961) which delineates three types of definitions. These three distinctions were helpful in understanding the sources of definitional confusion which confronted the research team. They are: (1) definition by classification, (2) definition by structural analysis, and (3) definition by operational analysis. The variety of definitions of continuing education, community service, community development, and public service will be illustrated in relationship to each of these three broad types of definition.

Definition by Classification

Definitions of this type typically include distinctions between genus and species. In addition, distinctions usually are made regarding the time span which is covered by programs, and/or format which is used, and/or the environment in which the activity occurs.

Analysis of data from the practitioners interviewed and from the literature indicates that there is little agreement as to which of the terms "continuing education," "community service," and "community development" is the genus and which is the species. For example, there are those who do not make distinctions at all, but opt for mixing the terms all together in statements like: "community service is the same as continuing education" or "community development is the same as community service." On the other hand, there are those who claim that continuing education is part of community service or the reverse, that community service is part of continuing education. Some claim that community development is a means of implementing continuing education. Others assert that community service is a function of community development. "Public service" is a term which is used primarily by the University of California system. In that system continuing education is usually considered part of public service as is applied research. The genus and species problem is far from resolved in the field. The authors of this study believe that the genus is lifelong education. The species appear to include several of the above terms, plus others. The confusion may be partially due to the overlapping of characteristics of these various terms in implementations. Following a botanical analogy, there may be "sports" or "hybrids." Clarity is more likely to be achieved by making complex distinctions than through attempting to oversimplify, claiming that different terms mean the same thing.

In addition to the distinction between genus and species, definition by classification also includes distinctions based on whether programs are: full time or part time, on campus or off campus, credit or noncredit, daytime or evening, or for adults as distinct from youth or children. Typical definitions of this type follow:

> The program is classified as continuing education if the student is an adult and is taking courses on a part-time basis.
>
> Continuing education is that portion of our education complex which is offered during times and on days that are convenient for the general adult populace. If it's part time, it's continuing education.
>
> Community service means taking classes off campus to the community. If the program is out there in the community, it's a service.
>
> Community service activities are defined by us as (1) noncredit classes, anything that is outside of credit; (2) anything that is designed to serve a particular kind of need in the community and is offered off campus; (3) any resources which are made available to nonstudents on the campus.

Public service is any service or benefit provided by the university to those other than its full-time students.

Some of the above distinctions are made on the basis of eligibility for state funding to the different segments of higher education. In many cases, these distinction are made, not primarily for programmatic considerations, but strictly for financial considerations, as illustrated in this definition:

Community service is everything that college does that doesn't generate A.D.A. (average daily attendance, which is the basis of allocation of state support to community colleges). Community service is all of the activities which are noninstitutional.

A number of administrators and Title I project personnel indicated during the interviews that, except for financial bookkeeping purposes, the distinctions based on full time or part time, on campus or off campus, daytime or evening, or adult as distinct from youth were becoming artificial ones.

Definition by Structural Analysis

In definitions of the structural analysis type, the parts of a structure are identified and related to form a gestalt or organized unit. Definition by structural analysis adapted to continuing education, community service, community development, and public service describes the *agencies, program areas, clients' leadership, content,* and *goals.* For example, the following definition of public service includes the *agencies, the program areas,* and the *clients:*

Public service means that the University works with governmental agencies in social and environmental policy formation, committing institutional resources to the solution of major social and environmental problems, training people from disadvantaged communities, and generally being responsive to regional and national priorities in planning educational programs (Peterson, 1973, p. 81).

Other definitions by structure analysis emphasize the *sponsoring group* or *the leadership.* The following definitions are examples:

The program is a continuing education program, if it is operated out of extension, summer session, evening college, or continuing education units.

Continuing education is adult-level college education which includes unconventional programs which are sponsored by summer sessions, extension, external degree units. Faculty consulting is also continuing education. It also includes any applied research conducted by faculty or extension.

Often a further distinction was made in structural definitions. This distinction emphasized the *content* or *nature of the activity* for a specified *client group.* This is illustrated in the following examples:

The term community service includes providing extended degrees for adults, field education experiences for full-time students, and community development activities for citizens.

> Meeting local needs through a college means providing continuing education for adults, serving as a cultural center for the community, providing trained manpower for local employees, and facilitating student involvement in community service activities (Peterson, 1973, p. 76).
>
> Community service includes the educational, cultural, and recreational services which educational institutions provide to a community in addition to regularly scheduled classes (Harlacher, 1969, p. 54).

The reader will note in this last definition that community service for some practitioners includes cultural, recreational, and noneducational activities. A number of practitioners, especially in community colleges, provided definitions of community service which were of this type:

> Community service includes opening our swimming facilities on weekends. We report the attendance at all sports events as community service contacts.
>
> Community service participation includes all those who attended our art fairs and concerts.

Frequently definitions by structural analysis place the emphasis upon the *goal of the activities.* The following are examples of this tendency for the term "continuing education:"

> I view continuing education as the refurbishing of intellectual capital of persons in society. It is new production function of the institutions of higher education. The role of innovator for society has shifted from the church and industry to the nonprofit institutions of education.
>
> Continuing education is the term applied to those organized postsecondary educational experiences specifically provided for adult citizens who desire to improve their vocational, professional, cultural, or social learning beyond their present level of education.

The goal of community service was stressed in these definitions:

> Community service is the term applied when the resources of a postsecondary education institution are enlisted for assistance in solving the problems confronting a community.*
>
> Work directed toward fulfillment of community goals whether governmental or nongovernmental; individuals working with other individuals, groups, or agencies; this is community service and continuing education.
>
> Community service programs are those in which community members receive current information about job opportunities, mid-career changes, retraining, and training. The community members identify their own interests, aptitudes, and potential and effectively plan for their own futures (Gleazer, 1973, p. 8).

In many cases community development, defined by structural analysis, placed primary emphasis upon the *definition of goals.* The following statements illustrate this type of definition:

---

* *Thrust for Relevance.* Report of the Statewide Study on Adult and Continuing Education, Coordinating Board, Texas College and University System, Austin, Texas, 1974, p. 8.

Community development is a program or activity planned to improve the socioeconomic or physical conditions in a defined geographical area.

I think that community development is the improvement of the physical, social, political, or other environmental aspects of a community.

It's an activity that leads to an improvement in the lives of the local citizenry.

Community development consists of activities which better the social or physical structure of a community.

It appears to the authors of this study that definitions by structural analysis have tended to include too few dimensions. This approach to a definition is promising to the field if practitioners and authors attempt to use all or most of the parts of a structural definition (agencies, program areas, clients, leadership, content, and goals) to form a gestalt, rather than continuing the trend of creating partial structural definitions. The current situation can be likened to the task of baking a cake. The maker of the cake has a mental picture of the finished cake. The recipe, however, fails to include several ingredients. Without these ingredients the cake may not resemble what was intended by either the maker of the recipe or the maker of the cake. The failure to create adequate structural definitions has contributed to significant disparities in expectations and to misunderstandings between levels of administration and between funding agencies and practitioners.

Definition by Operational Analysis

A third type of definition is by operational analysis; it is appropriate "wherever words to be defined are the names of operations" (Upton & Samson, 1961, p. 177). Included in such definitions are the purpose of the operation and the functioning of the parts to achieve this purpose. The focus in this type of definition is on the process or method in relationship to the elements of a program.

The research team found, in the literature and upon examination of the data, that definition by operational analysis for the terms "continuing education," "community service," and "community development," occurred frequently. These definitions often differentiated continuing education by its tendency to be nonformal or nontraditional. The following definitions illustrate this:

Continuing education is characterized by informality, nontraditional methods and settings. It de-emphasizes formal teaching and repetitive drill. It is frequently nongraded, nonacademic, degree-oriented, and different from conventional curricula and classroom.

Continuing education means the continuation of discovery. It is a process or an interface between educational institutions and individuals, groups, and communities which furthers continual discovery. This process ought to require participatory argument at all stages. This makes it an unconventional program.

Typical definitions by operational analysis for community service emphasized the operation of a problem-solving process. The following definitions illustrate this tendency:

Community service is any type of problem-solving aid, assistance, or help provided to residents of a local community through a college.

> Community service is entry into the problem-solving process of a definable community at the behest of the elements of that community.

Some practitioners made distinctions between continuing education and community service on the basis of whether problem solving was being used as a process (community service) or as a means of meeting individual needs through nontraditional education (continuing education). The distinction between community service and community development was often blurred in operational type definitions given by practitioners since most of those who viewed community service as problem-solving also viewed community development as a problem-solving process. The following definitions by operation for the term "community development" reveal a heavy reliance upon the problem-solving process as the basis of definition:

> Community development is a process which helps the residents to diagnose their community's problems, to assign priorities, to explore alternative solutions, and to organize themselves to implement the courses of action which they have decided upon.

> Community development is an education process designed to help adults of a community solve their problems through group decision making and group action. Based on self-help, it requires extensive citizen participation and is committed philosophically to government by the people. The community development process has five stages: (1) problem definition, (2) identification of resources, (3) analysis of alternative courses of action, (4) implementation of action, and (5) evaluation-feedback-modification.

> Community development is intended to provide the community with the leadership and coordination capabilities of the college, to assist the community in long-range planning, and to attack unsolved problems with individuals and groups (Harlacher, 1967, p. 54).

> Community development is a social process by which human beings can become more competent to live with and gain control over local aspects of a frustrating and changing world (Biddle, 1965, p. 78).

> Community development consists of organized efforts to improve the conditions of community life and the capacity for community integration and self-direction. There are four basic elements: (1) a planned program; (2) encouragement of self-help; (3) technical assistance which may include personnel, equipment, and supplies; and (4) integration of various specialties for the help of the community (Durham, 1960, pp. 33-55).

It appears to the authors of this study that definitions by operation are essential to the field of continuing education and community service. The process, operation, or method used in many cases is the essential differentiating feature of the education being provided under very diverse labels and administrative structures. Evidence from this study supports the assumption that methods or processes of education cannot be assumed to be operating in programs identified only by their sponsoring administrative unit, their client system, or their goals. Failure to clarify definitions by operation has caused disparities of expectation between funding agencies and practitioners.

As one can readily see, the central task of this research study was complicated by the confusion of meanings attached to the terms "continuing education," "community service," "community development," and "public service." Moreover, when they were differentiated according to definition by classification, by structural analysis, and by operational analysis, extensive overlapping and multiple use of terms was found.

Since this study focused upon the process of strengthening and continuing Title I efforts, it was important for the research team to examine the meaning of the above terms as they related to the terminology of the Title I Act. The Act is titled "Community Service and Continuing Education Programs."

The definition (Appendix D–Regulations) for a community service program is presented below:

> "Community service program" means an education program, activity, or service offered by an institution(s) of higher education and designed to assist in the solution of community problems in rural, urban, or suburban areas with particular emphasis on urban and suburban problems. "Community service programs" may include but is not limited to a research program, an extension or continuing education activity, or a course, provided, however, that such courses are extension or continuing education courses and are either fully acceptable toward an academic degree or of college level as determined by the institution offering such courses (Subpart A, 173.1, C; 1).

This definition appears, upon analysis, to be primarily a definition by structure and by classification. The type of institution is specified as are the types of program areas. These are structural specifications. The location of community problems in rural, urban, and suburban areas can be identified as a definition by classification. Upon close examination, however, the phrase "designed to assist in the solution of community problems" appears to be a definition by operation or process. Data from practitioners indicate that program implementations of Title I tend to vary according to the type of definition which practitioners select in their reading of the Title I Act.

The definition of "Educational Service" also appears to be primarily a definition by structure:

> "Educational service" means an aspect of the community service program involving the resources of an institution(s) of higher education, including equipment and library materials used in support of efforts to solve community problems (Subpart A, 173.1, C; 2).

In this definition the structural elements include: service programs, higher education institutions, equipment, and library materials.

In the "Extension and Continuing Education" definition quoted below, however, it appears that the primary definition is by operation:

> "Extension and continuing education" refers to the extension and continuance of the teaching and research resources of an institution of higher education to meet the unique educational needs of the adult population who have either completed or interrupted their formal training. Instructional methods include, but are not limited to, formal classes, lectures, demonstrations, counseling and correspondence, radio, television, and other innovative programs of instruction and study organized at a time and geographic location enabling individuals to participate. Programs of continuing and extension education assist the individual to meet the tasks imposed by the complexities of our society in fulfilling his role in the world of work, as an informed and responsible citizen, and in his individual growth and development (Subpart A, 173.1, C; 1,3).

The reader will note in the above definition that the emphasis is upon the methods or processes of teaching, research, classes, lectures, demonstrations, counseling, correspondence, radio, television, and other innovative programs of instruction. The last part of the definition implies a process in "meeting the tasks imposed by the complexities of our society. . . ." The only part of the definition which is by classification is the term "adult population."

Those who have tended to interpret the Title I definitions by classification have found few meaningful distinctions, except for the emphasis upon adults. The Act apparently is quite

broad in this respect. Those who have tended to look for definitions by structural analysis in the Title I Act have been able to include an extremely wide variety of program areas, clients, administrative structures, and general educational goals to justify their Title I efforts. The Act does not set priorities on these elements. Those who have tended to interpret the Title I Act through definition by operational analysis have tended to focus upon the problem-solving function of program operations and the purposes of the activities. Perhaps part of the diversity of interpretation that has arisen in the interpretation of the Act is due to the lack of consensus about the primary type of definition intended. If the definition of the Act was meant to be primarily by operational analysis, then it did not go far enough in setting up criteria for what constituted the community problem-solving process using higher education resources. The listing of general social problems in the Act is helpful as a content distinction, but it fails to assist the practitioners in conceptualizing the criteria for the nature of the process preferred by the Congress. On the other hand, the ambiguity of the Act has been perceived by some state agencies as valuable since it provided flexibility and diversity in its implementation as a state grant program.

It would seem that semantic clarification of the Title I Act would be helpful to both state administrative agencies administering the Act and to practitioners in preventing misunderstanding. It would be naive, however, to assume that those who wish to distort the meaning of the Act by using it out of context, taking only part of it, or by deliberately or accidentally imposing their unique locally-based interpretations would be entirely prevented from doing so merely by semantic clarification. Clarity and consistency can only be achieved to the extent that funders, implementors, evaluators, and researchers seek to define their terms more adequately in a variety of contexts.

CATEGORIZATION OF PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATIONS

In addition to the diversity of definitions surrounding the meaning of the terms "continuing education," "community service," "community development," and "public service," the research team confronted an extremely complex variety of program implementations. Upon examination of the descriptions of program implementations which were provided through the interviewing, the research team inductively identified five major dimensions for categorizing patterns of continuing education and community service in institutions of higher education. These dimensions are suggested as a basis for clarifying the diversity of program implementations. They are:

1. The Primary Function of the Learning Task
2. The Scope of the Educational Need or Community Problem
3. The Primary Educational Method Used
4. The Higher Education Administrative Program Unit
5. The Primary Role of the Educators

Table 4 describes each of these dimensions in greater detail. Since any one program or educational event or activity can vary on each of these five dimensions, there are theoretically an extensive number of possibilities. When Title I projects alone were considered, almost all of the categories within each dimension were involved. The following brief descriptions of Title I

TABLE 4
Dimensions for Categorizing Patterns of Continuing Education and Community Services in Institutions of Higher Education

Primary Functions of the Learning Task	Scope of the Educational Need	Primary Educational Methods	Higher Education Program Unit	Primary Role of Educators
Societal Development and Problem Solving	Multi-Nation	Basic Research Applied Research	Research Unit or Center	Knowledge Builder
Community Development and Problem Solving	Nation	Need Assessment Survey, Self-Study	Community Development Center	Consultant
Organizational Development and Problem Solving	Multi-State	Consulting and Technical Assistance	Public Affairs or Community Service Office	Advocate
Aggregate Group Development and Problem Solving	State	Experiential Education through Field Work or Internships	Department or School	Change Agent
Professional Development and Problem Solving	Multi-County or Region	Counseling and Guidance	Administrative Offices Student Services Units	Catalyst
Individual Development and Problem Solving	Multi-City or County	Seminars, Short Courses and Workshops, Task Forces	Summer and Winter Sessions	Process Helper
	City	Travel and Excursion Seminars	External or Extended Degree Units	Innovator
	Town or Village	Classroom Courses	Evening College	Leader
	Part of a City	Independent Study Correspondence Educational TV Individualized Instruction in Learning Centers	Extension or Continuing Education Units	Knowledge Conveyer
	Neighborhood		Consortial Units Intracampus and Intercampus	Trainer

projects in California will illustrate the use of Table 4, focusing initially on the categories in the first column, "Primary Functions of the Learning Task." These descriptions will name the appropriate items involved for each project on each of the dimensions including the "Scope of the Educational Need," "Primary Educational Methods," "Higher Education Program Unit," and "Primary Role of the Educators." The items circled on Table 4 are those specified in the first illustration. The other illustrations will of course name appropriate items on each of the dimensions.

In *Societal Development and Problem Solving*, higher education institutions are involved in clarifying the nature and extent of societal problems. Further, in these efforts alternative technological, economical, or political solutions which could be implemented through governmental, commercial, social service, or other agencies, through policy changes, shifts in economic priorities, or the use of improved methodologies are identified and developed. Typically, this function is conducted at the state or national level, involves research and transactive events or seminars, and includes decision makers who have the capability of bringing about societal change (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972, pp. 60-68). The following is an example:

> *A Conservation Statewide Land Use Planning Program on Open Space was conducted by all nine campuses of the University of California. The primary function of the learning was societal development and problem solving through problem identification and policy decision making on the part of public officials. The scope of the educational need was statewide. The primary educational methods used were need assessment surveys, consulting and technical assistance, and seminars attended by public officials throughout the state. The higher education program unit was an intercampus consortium of University of California Extension Units. The primary role of the educators was that of knowledge conveyers, process helpers, and catalysts.*

In *Community Development and Problem Solving*, higher education institutions help local citizens in a geographic or interest area to: (1) identify common community problems; (2) identify alternative courses of action; and (3) learn problem solving and change skills which may be needed in their organizations to bring about changes which they, not the higher education institutions, desire to make in their community. The approach involves a "self-help" philosophy, with the assistance of higher education, and is an educative approach which emphasizes learning while working on the solutions to real community problems (Biddle, 1965, p. 78). When Title I funds are used, community development must include higher education resources. The interaction process and the quality of the community relationship are emphasized. The following is an example from interview data:

> *A campus of the University of California assisted a group of local citizens in planning the redevelopment of their own community which was going to be razed by the local city government. The primary function of the program was community development. The scope of the educational need was a part of a large city. The primary educational methods that were used included community self-study, need assessment survey, workshops, and task forces on housing, recreation, and employment. The higher education program unit was a department of urban affairs within University Extension. The primary roles of the educators were catalyst, change agent, and process helper. A permanent organization developed and new housing was constructed along with miniparks.*

In *Organizational Development and Problem Solving*, institutions of higher education assist organization(s) bring about organizational changes such as: (1) improving interpersonal interaction and team building among the staff, (2) improving methods of serving clients, (3) improving effectiveness in organizational structure, (4) improving understanding of the effects

of organizational procedures on other organizations, and (5) improving methods of coping with organizational renewal and change in society (Lawrence & Lorsh, 1969; French, 1973; Bennis, 1966). The function of the learning is not primarily to improve individuals' skills in management but to focus upon the problems the organization as a whole is having. The following is an example from interview data:

> *A Change Agent Program was conducted by several campuses of the University of California. The primary function of the program was the organizational development and problem solving of agencies and organizations that sent teams to the workshops. The scope of the educational need was multicounty or regional. The primary educational methods used included seminars, workshops, and technical consultation. The higher educational program unit was an intercampus consortium composed of representatives of the university extension units of four campuses. The primary role of the educators included process helper, trainer, and change agent.*

In *Aggregate Group Development and Problem Solving*, institutions of higher education involved in: (1) building relationships and contacts with persons who have special needs and problems, i.e., women, minorities, disabled, elderly; (2) identifying special needs, especially educational needs; (3) creating, with their participation in the planning, new educational programs which are designed specifically for the aggregate group; and (4) assisting the learners in their efforts to bring about beneficial social change among their extended aggregate group and among social agencies which affect their aggregate group. This is known as social group work in the social welfare field. Typically, an institution of higher education institution engages in this process through extending its guidance and counseling staff to the target population, hiring staff persons from the target aggregate group, or setting up an outreach center in the residential or employment area of the aggregate group. Referral is often made to other agencies for service of noneducational needs. The following is an example:

> *A Women's Re-entry Program of a community college was primarily addressing the need for aggregate group development and problem solving (nontraditional women students). The scope of the educational need was countywide. The primary educational methods that were used included counseling, workshops, and classroom courses. The program was administered through the Student Services Unit of the college. The staff members of the program saw themselves as process helpers, catalysts, and change agents for both the clients and the institution of higher education. Administrators viewed the program as continuing education and community service.*

In *Professional or Occupational Development and Problem Solving*, institutions of higher education assist persons who are preparing for, making a transition to, or upgrading knowledge and/or skills in an occupation or a profession. Typically this includes: (1) career guidance and career exploration, sometimes through work experience or voluntary field internships; (2) educational and training programs leading to certification for specific employment; and/or (3) inservice educational programs for employees. Vocational education programs at the community college level and professional degree programs through the professional schools of four-year colleges and universities are generally and extensively engaged in these activities through their regular full-time programs, their extended and external degree programs, and their extension or continuing education units. Title I programs have been used in California to develop innovative approaches to career exploration through volunteer internships and to provide needs assessments which could lead to new programs which, in turn, could decrease unemployment in specific impacted geographic areas. The following are examples:

A state college conducted a program that linked students with community agencies. The primary function of the program was preprofessional development and problem solving on the part of the students who wanted volunteer experience in order to clarify career goals. The scope of the educational need was part of a city and included 30-40 agencies. The primary educational method used was experiential education through field work or internships. The higher education program unit was a Student Services Unit. The members of the program staff considered their primary role to be process helpers or linkers between the students and the agencies.

A community college conducted a Health Manpower Investigation in a high unemployment area. The primary function of the program was professional and occupational development and problem solving for both the unemployed and the health agencies who were potential employers. The scope of the educational need was a part of a city. The primary educational methods that were used included needs assessment and manpower surveys. The higher education program unit the administrative offices of the college. The program staff members considered their primary role as knowledge builder and consultant to the college which subsequently implemented the new training programs in paraprofessional health occupations.

A Staff Training Program for Poverty Agencies was conducted by a state university. The program's primary function was professional development and problem solving. The scope of the educational need was countywide. The primary educational methods that were used included a series of seminars followed by the providing of technical assistance. The higher education program unit was the Department of Public Administration. The primary role of the educators was that of trainer and consultant.

In *Individual Development and Problem Solving,* institutions of higher education assist individual learners who are seeking new attitudes, knowledge, or skills or who as individuals are seeking to bring about the solution of personal or community problems. Most general education leading to degrees in higher education has the primary focus of individual development. The major assumption relating to community problem solving through individual development is that community problems are diminished to the extent that individuals learn how to lessen the impact of societal or community problems on themselves. For example, a housewife on welfare who learns nutrition in the feeding of her children reduces the community health problem of malnutrition. One slum dweller with a housing problem who learns about his individual rights as a tenant and, as a consequence, negotiates with his landlord regarding needed safety and sanitation improvements reduces to some extent the community housing problem. In California some Title I projects addressed themselves to the solution of community problems through individual education. Individuals were taught consumer education, home management, human relations, home improvement, and career alternatives. They were encouraged generally through counseling to continue their educational activities. The following are examples:

A Rural Continuing Education Outreach program was conducted by a consortium of a state college and several community colleges. The primary function of the learning was individual development and problem solving with citizens. The scope of the educational need was a region or part of a state. The primary educational method that was used was individualized instruction in learning centers in remote rural villages. The higher education program unit was an intercampus consortium composed of representatives of community college evening college units. The primary role of the educators was process helper and knowledge conveyer.

An educational television program was conducted by a consortium of colleges and universities. Its primary function was to provide individual development and problem-solving capability to citizens. These citizens in turn were to bring about societal pressure

on organizations and the legislature concerning nine major societal problems. The scope of the educational need was part of a state (the southern half of the State of California). The primary educational methods used included seminars with agencies and clients to identify need and potential resources and research to produce educational television productions that were viewed by learners. The higher education program unit consisted of an intercampus consortium composed of representatives of the administrative offices of each campus (college presidents, chancellors, and deans of continuing education). The primary role of the educators was that of a knowledge conveyer.

In a few cases Title I projects in California combined more than one primary function, method, or operant role. The following is an example of a project which combined individual, professional and organizational development, and problem solving:

An urban design program was conducted by one of the campuses of the University of California. The primary function of the learning was to provide individual development and problem solving to individuals and to organizations in the design of urban structures. The scope of the educational need was a city. The primary educational methods that were used included field work of architectural student interns who provided consulting and technical assistance to citizens and organizations. The students received work experience that assisted them in professional development. The higher education program unit was a community development center. The primary role of the educators was that of consultant and knowledge conveyer.

Each of the six types of program primary functions calls for different educational content. There are also differences in the anticipated action on the part of the learners and in the consequences for society.

The primary value of the dimensions for categorizing patterns (Table 4) is that it provides a graphic means of viewing past program tendencies and future program priorities. Using the categorizations explained above as a basis of clarification, the following generalizations can be made based on the data for community colleges, California State University and Colleges, the University of California system, and independent nonprofit institutions.

Community colleges, according to the administrators who were interviewed, tend to concentrate on individual and occupational development and problem solving in their regular programs as well as in their evening colleges which serve the regular and part-time adult student. Evening courses tend to replicate courses and programs offered to on-campus daytime students. However, a new trend is beginning to occur in most of the community colleges where interviewing was conducted for this study. Aggregate group development and problem solving was increasing in most instances due to Title I project efforts. Activities other than those supported by Title I funds in the organizational development, community development, and societal development categories tended to be the exception rather than the rule. Administrators and project directors in community colleges made the following typical statements when asked to describe the primary function of activities of their colleges:

Our community colleges serve at the individual level on the whole. Our business law instructor did help an Indian tribe with their lumber contracts. We have helped some of the agencies in need assessment surveys at times. Most colleges have women's re-entry programs and more of them are getting programs for senior citizens.

Most of what we do is with the first three groups (individual, professional or occupational, and aggregate groups). It's 90% in these areas. Without Title I we would only be offering vocational education and liberal arts for individuals. With Title I we can work with organizations of Chicanos, Blacks, and women as special groups.

We have a huge Chicano population in the southern part of the county. We are beginning to build a relationship with them. We are trying to overcome their being alienated from our college through individual recruitment and through working with their leadership. We are working with them at the aggregate group level.

Our program has focused on the problems of new types of students. We have been working on extending our handicapped program. We are trying to develop programs with senior citizens. Except for these efforts our programs are at the individual level. We conducted a program at one time which related to one agency's public retirement program. That would be at the organizational level.

Not all community colleges view the recent emphasis on higher education egalitarianism as positive. Many of the faculty members and some trustees still view the primary function of the community college to be the general education of students who will transfer to the state colleges and universities. One Title I project director said:

The trustees here are only interested in the individual transfer student who is going to the state colleges or universities. Our project which is to involve minorities doesn't enhance the board's objectives. If we do anything much at the aggregate group level or above, we don't make much of it publicly.

In a few cases, the increase in the enrollment of aggregate groups was reported as unfavorable to the financial situation in the district. Average daily attendance (ADA) for student class hours is the basis for state tax support in relationship to district assessed valuation (California Senate Bill 6). When the assessed valuation is very high, the state tax support is very low. Thus, the majority of additional costs for enrolling new students must be borne by the local taxpayers who, through their trustees, do not encourage additional enrollments. The opposite tends to be true in community college districts which receive a high proportionate ADA state tax support.

The nature of community colleges, along with their general capability, may also be a factor in their tendency to provide primarily individual development and occupational development programs. One community college administrator reasoned:

It may be that the community college capability is primarily with the individual, the occupational, and the aggregate level, while the California State University and Colleges and the University of California system should address the other levels. The reason that the community colleges tend to focus on the individual level is because they are closest to the individual geographically. The University has more capability in dealing with the organizations and societal problem solving because it can use basic and applied research. The scope of the University is state and national. They should be addressing problems at that level.

Interestingly, the comments of administrators and project directors interviewed at California State University and Colleges showed that it was the exception for their institutions to be engaged in organizational development, community development, or societal development and problem solving. Some of their comments follow:

The college has mostly responded to problems of individuals. Although the public administration school has responded to problems of organizations and government, I think the department of education has also helped the organization problems of the public schools.

Our regular continuing education programs are oriented to the individual and professional levels. More recently we have been interested in the aggregate group level with our work with returning women and senior citizens.

The primary explanation provided by administrators in California State University and Colleges for the overwhelming focus on individual development and professional development was that it was traditional and that the fee structure for continuing education demanded that these activities be self-supporting. They said that they had not found it to be economically possible to engage in community development or societal development. When organizational development was conducted, it was mostly done through the efforts of individual faculty members acting as individual consultants, not involving the campus administration.

The same generalizations can be made for the University of California campuses with the exception of their research projects which have impact on societal development and problem solving and their agricultural extensions which are involved at almost all the functional levels of learning. The following comments will illustrate the situation on the University of California campuses:

Most of what we do here is at the individual level. Agricultural Extension on the one hand is operating at the association and organizational level. It's mostly one faculty member at a time relating to one organization at a time providing consulting. I'm afraid that the University as a whole doesn't relate above the individual level, except through Agricultural Extension.

A number of research projects here are in direct response to societal problems. Agricultural Extension relates to the organizational level. Some of our departments are providing professional development through field internships. The extended degree programs and almost all of what goes on in Extension are oriented to individual development.

When we became involved in the Title I . . . (community development project) effort we had only teased around before with such involvement. In community development, you help people to achieve their own ends. In this case, it was to fight city hall in razing the whole area. We helped them learn to use the tools of society while they changed their community. There is no ability for us to do these things without Title I funding. I think that we should be working in areas that can't be funded from fees.

In summary, the dimensions for categorizing patterns of continuing education and community services in higher education institutions may provide a basis of clarification from which to view present and future program intentions and priorities. The examples cited clearly show that great variability exists in the scope, methodology, program structure, and role of educators in the implementations of continuing education and community service programs. Data from this study indicate that this variability extended to Title I activities in California.

The Title I Act appears to focus on community and societal problem solving. Various interpretations of community and societal problem solving incorporate organizational development, aggregate group development, professional development, and individual development within the context of the societal and community problem-solving process. Merely to provide individual or professional instruction without reference to, or without a rationale for, the specific contribution this will make to the larger context of community and societal problem solving appears to be a misconception of the intention of the Act. The historical tendency of all institutions of higher education to limit themselves to providing individual and professional development and problem solving has been a force that has confined the interpretation and consequent implementation of the Title I Act. Hopefully, Table 4 will provide a basis for

clarifying the intention of the Congress as well as clarifying the interpretation of conceptualizations for practitioners implementing the Title I Act.

PERSPECTIVES ON CONSEQUENCES

A third major area of diverse interpretation encountered by the research team while reviewing the literature and conducting interviews was a lack of conceptual clarity about the nature of projected consequences of continuing education and community service efforts. Two important distinctions emerged from the analysis of the data. They provide a basis for clarification in the midst of the varied values and aims of program consequences. When these distinctions were ignored, a disparity of expectations was created between program personnel and their administrators, including the state Title I administration. The distinctions were also found to be closely linked to the potentiality of Title I efforts being strengthened and continued. Each of these distinctions will be discussed in turn.

The first distinction made by the research team was between intrinsic values of programs and instrumental values of programs. This distinction has a long standing tradition in educational philosophy, i.e., liberal arts programs versus professional education. An intrinsic value can be defined as "having value in itself, for its own sake, and not as a means only" (Runes, 1942, p. 148). An instrumental value, on the other hand, can be defined as "having value due to the useful consequences which it produces, a value as a means, a value as a contribution" (Runes, 1942, p. 330). One way of distinguishing the value of continuing education and community service programs is to make the clarification between their intrinsic and their instrumental value to the learners.

The second distinction that was made by the research team in response to the data was between intended consequences and anticipated consequences of continuing education and community service programs. To intend means to design or destine, to direct or aim, to propose to accomplish, to plan a specific outcome (Funk, 1963, p. 1276). Intended consequences are those that are deliberately designed. They usually are viewed as the narrow-aimed outcomes of specific objectives. In contrast, to anticipate is "to hope, or to expect" (Funk, 1963, p. 122). Anticipated consequences are those that are expected potentially to occur. They usually are viewed as less subject to the manipulation and control of the actors and are more likely to be broad-aimed outcomes that are multiple and diverse.

The relationship between consequences from educational activities that have intrinsic or instrumental value and consequences that are intended or anticipated is depicted in Figure 2.

An example will show the distinction between programs that have intended or anticipated

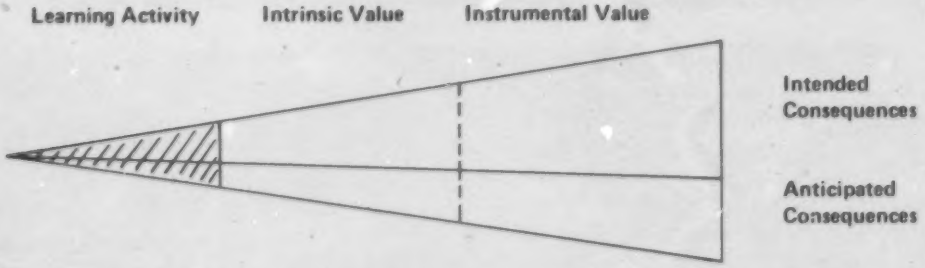


FIGURE 2: Diagram of Intended or Anticipated Consequences and Their Intrinsic or Instrumental Value

consequences. A program whose goal is to train paraprofessionals in the health field will probably have definite, deliberate, narrow-aimed intended consequences, namely that the learners achieve a level of professional performance in specific skills. A program that addresses the problem of delinquency prevention in a ghetto will probably have many different anticipated consequences most of which will not be under the control of those initiating the educational activity. Programs that anticipate consequences rather than intend them can be described as broad-aimed programs. Programs that intend consequences rather than anticipate them can be described as narrow-aimed programs. In both narrow-aimed and broad-aimed programs unanticipated consequences can and do occur.

The intrinsic and instrumental value of a learning activity can be illustrated by another example. A group of students took flying lessons. Some of the students valued the learning experience intrinsically, i.e., they just wanted to experience the joy of flying while they had the lessons, never intending to fly again. Other students did not intrinsically value the learning experience itself, but they intended and actually had intrinsically valuable experiences in flying for pleasure following the course. Still other students took the course for strictly pragmatic instrumental purposes, i.e., they wanted to get jobs as pilots so that they would not be unemployed. In the example above, the intrinsic or instrumental values were intended and experienced as narrow-aimed consequences on the part of the learners. There were other students, however, who anticipated and experienced broad-aimed consequences from taking the same flying class. Some of these students not only came to value the experience of flying in and of itself, but along with this experience they came to have a broad appreciation for weather formations and geographical features that were observed from the air. This in turn led them to appreciate further pleasure trips to other countries and other cultures. Other students not only used their flying lessons to obtain employment as pilots, but their primary goal was to become pilots so that they would be able to use their skills in assisting development efforts in remote villages.

It is unusual for a single course such as the above hypothetical example to have an equal distribution of intrinsic intended narrow-aimed, instrumental broad-aimed consequences. Usually the educators involved with particular learning activities tend to conceptualize the consequences of these activities primarily in one of the above four ways. Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6 include course titles taken from continuing education catalogues which illustrate each of the four primary categories or types of consequences:

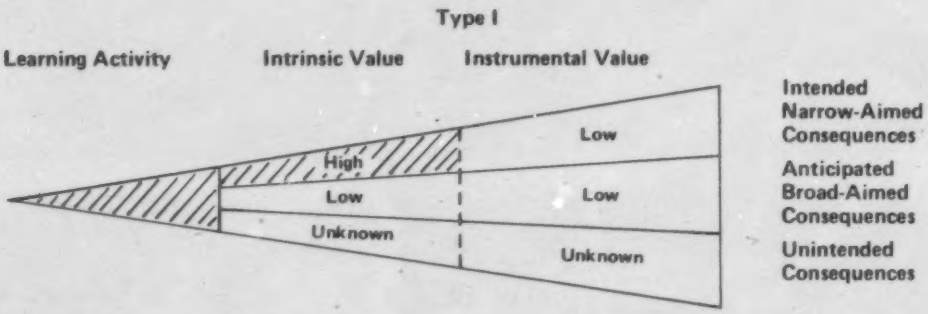


FIGURE 3: Narrow-Aimed Intrinsic Value Program Consequences

Examples of these types of programs are: Arts and Crafts for the Handicapped, Sculpture for Enjoyment, Positive Approaches to Lasting Relationships, Modern Dance for Personal Growth, and Appreciating Contemporary Drama.

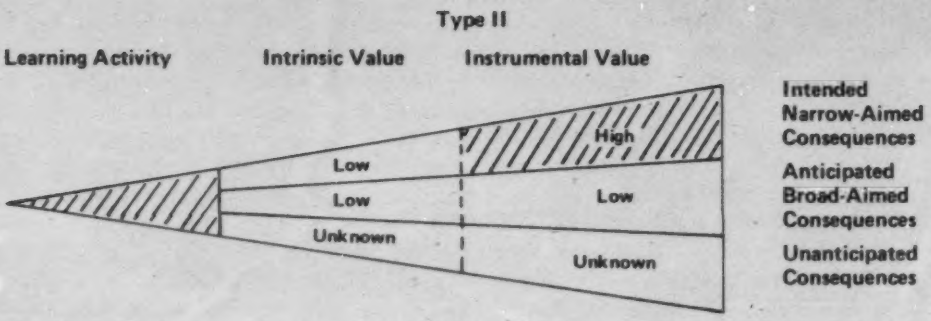


FIGURE 4: Narrow-Aimed Instrumental Value Program Consequences

Examples of these types of programs are: Introduction to Computer Programming, Earthquake Engineering, Fundamentals of Accounting, Personnel Development Training, Small Business Management, Home Management for Ghetto Dwellers, Paraprofessional Training for Nursing, and Survival English for the Foreign-Born.

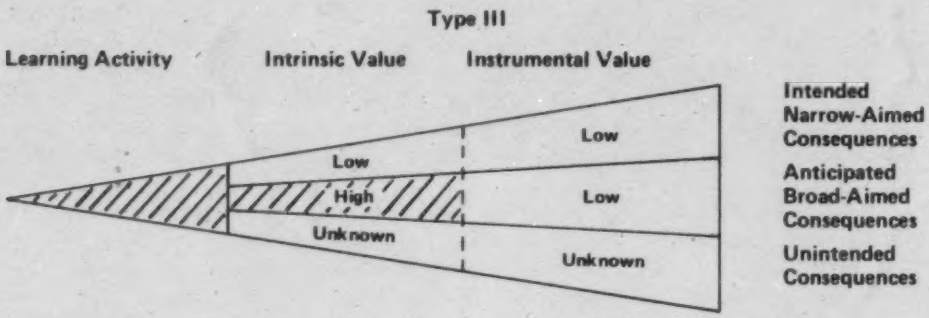


FIGURE 5: Broad-Aimed Intrinsic Value Program Consequences

Examples of these types of programs are: Field Study in Natural History, Learning History Through Foreign Travel, Introduction to English Literature, Philosophy of Women's Liberation, and Creative Exploration in the Arts.

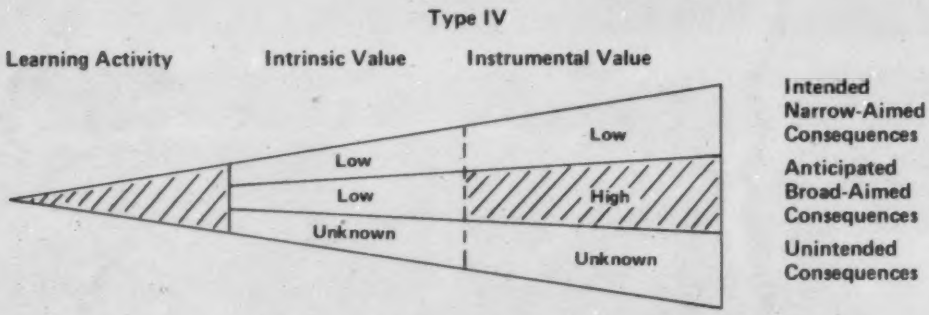


FIGURE 6: Broad-Aimed Instrumental Value Program Consequences

Examples of these types of programs are: Planning for Economic Development in Orange County, Urban Redevelopment Planning in Los Angeles, Career Development for Women, Community Responses to Alcohol Addiction, Mobile Educational Advisement for Minorities, Coping with Racism in the Public Schools, Delinquency Prevention in the Ghetto, and Planning for Open Spaces in California.

Administrators and project directors were asked during the interviewing to describe the general nature of all continuing education and community service programs in their institutions including their Title I efforts. They gave descriptions that were the basis for estimating the distribution of programs according to the four preceding types. These estimated distributions are indicated in Table 5. These estimates from the data indicate that almost all of the continuing education and community service programs including Title I efforts were depicted by the interviewees as Type I, Type II, or Type III. Without the Title I efforts, very few Type IV programs were reported by interviewees.

TABLE 5
Estimated Distribution of Programs in Continuing Education and Community Service According to Type of Intended and Anticipated Consequences
Institutions Represented – 35

Type of Program		Percent of Total
Type I	Narrow-Aimed Intrinsic Value Programs	15
Type II	Narrow-Aimed Instrumental Value Programs	55
Type III	Broad-Aimed Intrinsic Value Programs	20
Type IV	Broad-Aimed Instrumental Value Programs	10
Total		100%

CONTRASTING PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT DIRECTIONS

A fourth major area of diverse interpretation was due to a lack of conceptual clarity on the directionality of relating resources of institutions of higher education to community problem-solving efforts. Often administrators assumed that the direction for the development of programs started with the institution of higher education, while Title I project staff assumed that the direction began from the role perspective of the community clients and their needs or problems. Analysis of the data indicates that programs which originated at either end of this polarity had very different tendencies and characteristics. Figure 7 provides a basis of clarification regarding possible directions for relating resources of institutions of higher education to community problem-solving efforts or vice versa.

The provision of community problem-solving education can be developed and controlled from either end of the continuum. When the movement is from the left to the right, the resources of the institutions of higher education are identified, i.e., bodies of knowledge, facilities, faculty, students, etc. Then clients, target populations, or agencies are recruited to enroll in courses, programs, or events which allow the institutions of higher education to make a contribution to community problem-solving education. This programming direction can be called *higher education-oriented.* When the movement is from the right to the left, the type of need on the part of the clients, target populations, or agencies is identified first; then the educational needs are identified using higher education resources if they are available and if

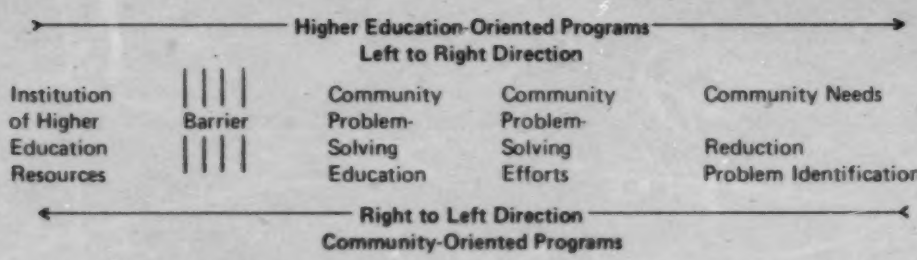


FIGURE 7: Possible Directions for Relating Resources of Institutions of Higher Education to Community Problem-Solving Efforts

they can be modified to fit the community problem-solving effort. This programming direction can be called *community-oriented.*

The advantage of moving from the left to the right (high education-oriented) is that those in the institution of higher education are able to build from existing bodies of knowledge and theory which are already central to the priorities of their institutions. When Title I projects have been implemented from the left to the right direction (see Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972, pp. 35-46), it was found that it was easier to get faculty and student participation in the efforts. These projects tended to allow the institution of higher education to have greater control over the direction of the projects which, in many cases, could be set in motion in a short period of time. The disadvantage of implementation from left to right, according to the opinion of some project directors, is that the type of knowledge and the form of the organized bodies of knowledge when presented traditionally as they are to undergraduates tends not to relate well to the orientation of community problem solvers.

When the movement of development of continuing education and community service is from right to left (community-oriented) on the continuum shown in Figure 7, there are different advantages and disadvantages as well as different types of programs resulting. When the right to left movement occurs, there is a greater tendency for the communities to become the prime movers. They tend to become the literal directors, determining the nature of their problems and the nature of the education required. This provides the advantage of prime proactive involvement and tends to insure results more than reactively being "helped" and thus kept dependent. However, a consequent reflection of higher education resources may accompany such action; communities, if so empowered, could open their options as to whom to hire as consultants and instructors—not only personnel from the higher education institution but also personnel from other agencies, business, private and business groups. However, in Title I projects the resources of the institutions of higher education, according to the Act, must be used.

When the direction for relating resources begins with community needs reduction, the task of determining the extent of the needs becomes crucial. Bradshaw (1974) has identified four ways of determining the extent of need. They are: "(1) normative need which is determined by comparing the extent of need with standards agreed upon by experts or authorities, (2) felt need which is determined by assessing the extent to which clients perceive or are willing to admit their need whether or not there may be a service available, (3) expressed need or demand which is determined by assessing the extent to which clients have turned their felt need into demands and have in some cases created waiting lists for services, and (4) comparative need which is determined by comparing the characteristics of those in need of services with those who have similar characteristics and who are being served elsewhere" (pp. 184-187). Theoretically, the most extensive need would include the intersections of all of these ways of describing community need.

A number of Title I projects in California have been developed from the right to the left direction (community-oriented) as denoted in Figure 7. All of these projects attempted to identify needs among the clients in their community. It would appear, theoretically, that the description of community need, according to the intersections of the four categories mentioned above, would provide a basis for planning and decision making relating to the funding of projects.

When the program descriptions provided by the interviewees were analyzed according to the two directions of program development (higher education-oriented and community-oriented, Figure 7) and in addition were related to the analysis according to the four types of consequences (Types I, II, III, IV, Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6) and primary functions of the learning (individual, professional, aggregate group, organizational, community and societal problem solving, Table 4), the following generalizations emerged:

Higher Education-Oriented continuing education and community service programs tend to develop from the higher education resources that are then applied to clients in relationship to market demand. These programs tend to emphasize Type I (narrow-aimed intrinsic value) consequences, Type II (narrow-aimed instrumental value) consequences, and Type III (broad-aim intrinsic value) consequences. The primary function of the learning involved in these programs tends to emphasize the individual and professional levels of development and problem solving. Upon analysis of the variables affecting the strengthening and continuing process stimulated as a result of the use of Title I funds (see Chapter V, p. 100), it was found that higher education-oriented programs tend to be highly compatible with higher education priorities. Usually they are able to generate funds from fees or from reimbursable state funds based on ADA in the community colleges. Because they are generally easier to implement, they comprise approximately 80% or more of continuing education. They tend to have a high potential for being strengthened when federal money terminates, especially if they do not have to depend upon fees alone. There is an increasing demand for higher education-oriented programs on the part of part-time adult students who are seeking self-fulfillment or are making professional or occupational changes.

Community-Oriented continuing education and community service programs tend to develop starting with significant community or societal problems or needs. Then they seek to identify educational resources in the institutions of higher education and elsewhere. These programs tend to emphasize Type IV (broad-aimed instrumental value) consequences and Type II (narrow-aimed instrumental value) consequences when they are necessary to supplement Type IV. The primary function of the learning involved in these programs emphasizes the aggregate group, organizational, community, and societal levels of development and problem solving. Upon analysis of the variables affecting the strengthening and continuing process that was stimulated through Title I funding (see Chapter V, p. 100), it was found that community-oriented programs tend to be much less compatible with institutional priorities than higher education-oriented programs are. They tend to experience difficulty in being able to generate funds from fees or reimbursable state funds based on ADA formulas. They were reported to have been more difficult to implement. It was estimated that community-oriented programs, as defined above, comprise 20% or less of all continuing education and community service programs. They are apt to have a low potential for being continued through adoption following the termination of federal grant money. In the opinion of project directors, there is an increasing demand on the part of citizens and agencies for educational assistance in addressing the mounting complexity and severity of major urban and suburban problems of society. Few institutions of higher education were giving high priority to this type of education.

Upon a careful examination of the data which described the types of programs in continuing education and community service, a third type of program development direction emerged as a category. In addition to the higher education-oriented and the community-

oriented, a broker-oriented approach was identified in a few projects. *Broker-oriented* programs tend to develop starting with brokers who select a range of societal needs and a range of institutional purposes and resources and then attempts to bring these together in order to match them for both short-term and long-term impact. Those who were engaged in this approach felt that it was a very promising way to encourage the institutions of higher education to become involved in organization, community, and societal development and problem solving through placing the responsibility for program development on the community representatives meeting with the higher educational representatives. In the broker-oriented programming approach, the programs are not controlled by the broker; he/she serves as a process helper or facilitator in bringing potential planners and problem solvers together. The emphasis, according to those who described this approach, was placed on mutual benefits to both the institutions of higher education and to the community governmental agency and citizen groups. Several interviewees suggested that a regional councel be conceptualized to perform the broker function. Figure 8 depicts this idea.

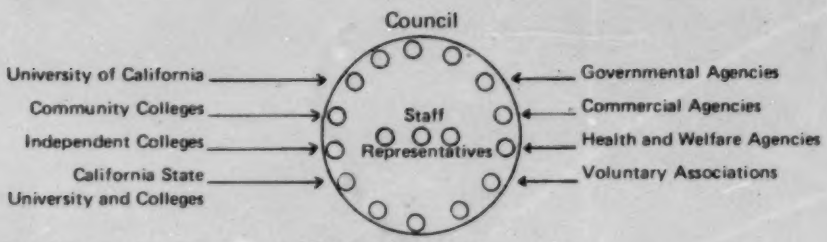


FIGURE 8: Broker Function of a Regional Council

There is some precedent for the broker-oriented approach to program development in cooperative extension in land-grant institutions. A few of the University of California Extension personnel who were interviewed as part of this study reported that they functioned as facilitators or brokers between the community agencies and the departments or schools of the University.

It appeared to the research team that by having personnel employed by both the institutions of higher education and the community agencies perform the broker function, the effectiveness of the approach would be optimized, i.e., local facilitators supported by community agencies, field staff specialists supported by higher education. Knowledge experts drawn from both higher education and community associations would be associated with these efforts. The broker, linking, facilitating function has been performed to some extent by personnel in Title I projects. The nature and significance of this function is further described in Chapter V, p. 71.

Although the broker-oriented approach to continuing education and community service is based on the assumption that there are possibilities for matching community problems with resources in institutions of higher education, a few interviewees reported some institutions of higher education did not have appropriate resources. They stated, however, that in some instances an institution of higher education responded to a community need by developing new capabilities. Those who advocated the broker-oriented approach were hopeful that through the stimulation of the broker, the development and strengthening of new capabilities for community services would be encouraged in institutions of higher education.

Table 6 provides a summary statement of the characteristics of the higher education-oriented, the community-oriented, and the broker-oriented approaches to program development for continuing education and community service.

TABLE 6
Types of Continuing Education and Community Service Programs Contrasted

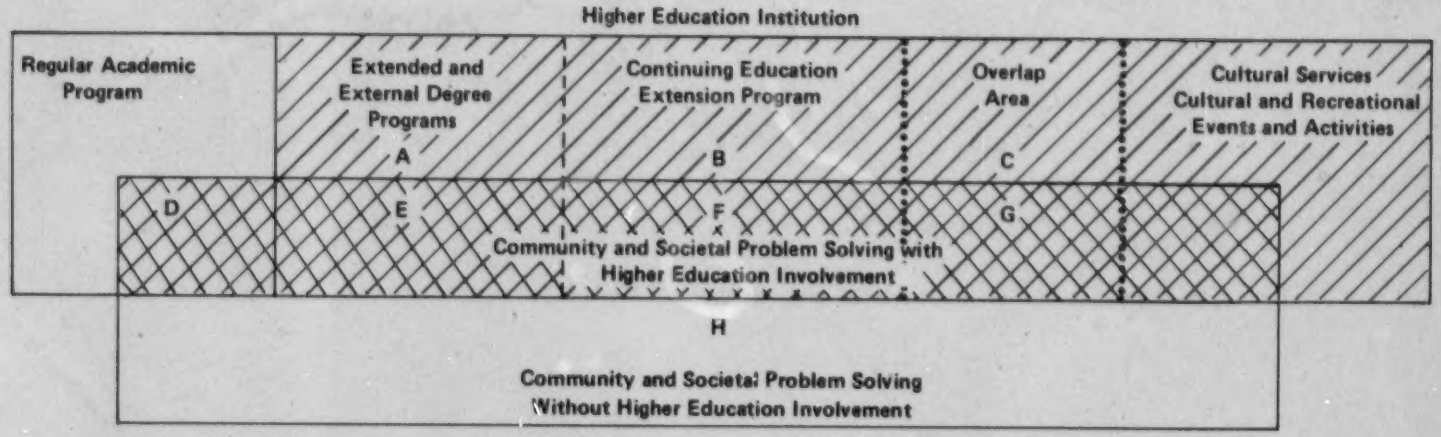
Higher Education-Oriented	Community-Oriented	Broker-Oriented
Tends to develop programs starting with higher education resources and then seeks to apply them to client's needs or community problems	Tends to develop programs starting with significant community problems and then seeks to identify educational resources in the institutions of higher education and elsewhere	Tends to develop programs starting with the role of a broker who selects a range of societal needs and a range of institutional purposes and resources and then attempts to bring these together to facilitate mutual benefits through matching
Tends to be initiated by faculty or continuing education staff and controlled by higher education	Tends to be initiated by part-time community-oriented higher education staff and controlled by the community agencies	Tends to be initiated by continuing education field specialists and local agency facilitators cooperatively and controlled by mutual contract
Tends to implement narrow-aimed intrinsic value, narrow-aimed instrumental value, and broad-aimed intrinsic value programs	Tends to implement broad-aimed instrumental programs or narrow-aimed instrumental value programs when they are necessary to supplement the broad-aimed instrumental program	Tends to implement any type of program that clients and institutions of higher education can mutually agree upon. Broad-aimed instrumental value programs are viewed as highly possible
Tends to emphasize individual and professional or occupational development and problem solving	Tends to emphasize aggregate group, organizational, community, and societal development and problem solving	Tends to emphasize professional or occupational, aggregate group, organizational, community and societal development, and problem solving
Tends to be highly compatible with higher education priorities	Tends not to be compatible with most higher education priorities	Tends to negotiate the intersections between community and higher education priorities
Tends to be able to generate funds from fees and from reimbursable state funds on ADA formulas	Tends to experience difficulty in generating funds from fees or reimbursable state funds on ADA formulas	Tends to experience difficulty in generating funds unless cooperative funding formulas between agencies and the institutions of higher education can be negotiated
Tends to have a high potential for being strengthened and adopted by the institution of higher education when grant money terminates	Tends to have a low potential for being strengthened and adopted by institutions of higher education when grant money terminates	Tends to have moderate potential for being strengthened and adopted unless long-term mutual funding agreements can be negotiated

INTERPRETATIONS OF THE TITLE I ACT

The diverse perspectives on and interpretations of continuing education and community service that have been described in this chapter have provided a framework for understanding the conceptual environment that surrounded the implementations of the Title I Act in California. Two alternative interpretations on the part of those who were interviewed also need to be understood. One interpretation of the Act which was held by interviewees permitted, in their view, general programming through all types of continuing education and community service. The other interpretation limited Title I activity to community or societal problem solving using the resources of the institution of higher education. These two interpretations were evidenced in the types of proposals that have been submitted to the state agency (California Coordinating Council for Higher Education and subsequently the California Postsecondary Education Commission) since the beginning of Title I in 1966. Projects that were proposed under the general interpretation of the Act were more likely to be higher education-oriented programs. Projects that were proposed under the community problem-solving interpretation were either higher education-oriented or community-oriented approaches to program development. A few of the proposals can be classified as broker-oriented. More recently, proposals have been developed which emphasize the broker-oriented approach. The two main interpretations of the Title I Act are depicted in Figure 9. Alternative Title I Activities and Interpretations of the Act. The reader will note in Figure 9 that, according to the General Interpretation, Title I activities could be implemented through regular academic programs (D), extended and external degree programs (A) and (E), continuing education and extension programs (B) and (F), and culturally-oriented societal problem-solving programs (C) and (G). This interpretation suggests that Title I funds could be used for narrow-aimed intrinsic value programs, narrow-aimed instrumental value programs, broad-aimed intrinsic value programs, and broad-aimed instrumental value programs (Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6). However, there was a tendency, according to the analysis of the data, for administrators who held the General Interpretation of Title I to propose and implement, for the most part, narrow-aimed instrumental value programs. These programs also had a tendency to be limited to the levels of individual, professional, or occupational development and problem solving.

The reader will also note in Figure 9 that, according to the Limited Interpretation of Title I (limited to societal and community problem solving using higher education resources), Title I activities could be implemented through all the various segments of higher education if they were oriented to the community and societal problem-solving functions through the use of education (D), (E), (F), and (G).

The Limited Interpretation of Title I suggests that the funds should be limited to both narrow-aimed and broad-aimed instrumental value programs. The general tendency of administrators holding this view, according to the analysis of the data, was to propose broad-aimed instrumental value programs. These program proposals tended to address aggregate group, organizational, community, and societal development and problem solving. When individual occupational or professional development and problem-solving type projects were proposed by those who hold a Type B Limited Interpretation of Title I, it usually was a part of a larger plan involving other functions such as aggregate group, organization, community, and societal development and problem solving.



KEY: Limited Interpretation of Title I: to Strenthen Only the Community Problem-Solving Efforts of Institutions of Higher Education

General Interpretation of Title I: to Strengthen All Types of Continuing Education Efforts of Institutions of Higher Education (This includes the community and societal problem-solving area)

Extended and External Degree Program (Not oriented to community problems)	A
Continuing Education Extension Program (Not oriented to community problems)	B
Culturally-Oriented Continuing Education and Community Service	C
Academically-Based Societal Problem-Solving Oriented	D
Extended Degree Programs Oriented to Societal Problem Solving	E
Societal Problem Solving Through Extension and Continuing Education Units	F
Culturally-Oriented Societal Problem Solving	G
Community and Societal Problem Solving Without Higher Education Involvement	H

FIGURE 9: Alternative Title I Activities and Interpretations of the Act

SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter has described five main areas of diverse perspectives on and interpretations of continuing education and community service which were encountered by the research team and which emerged from the analysis of the data. Descriptions and a basis of clarification and differentiation have been suggested for each: (1) clarification of definitions, (2) categorizations of program implementations, (3) perspectives on consequences, (4) contrasting program development directions, and (5) interpretations of the Title I Act. These distinctions have been presented in order to provide the conceptual context necessary to view the Title I implementations in California. The understanding of the distinctions between higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented in relationship to Title I projects will be useful later in this report when the affect of variables on the above types of Title I projects is described.

CHAPTER IV

THE STRENGTHENING AND CONTINUING OF COMMUNITY SERVICE EFFORTS

The primary focus of this chapter is on the nature of the strengthening and continuing process which was the intent of the federal Title I (HEA, 1965) funding. This chapter will not discuss the primary patterns of implementation of Title I projects in California. That has already been provided in an earlier study (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972). This chapter will address the following critical issues:

1. When Title I funds terminated at the end of a Title I project, what happened to the effort in relationship to the institution of higher education and the community?
2. What were the alternative relationships which existed between Title I projects and their institutions of higher education during and after Title I funding?
3. What was strengthened in the institution of higher education through the Title I effort?
4. What was the nature of the continuation and adoption process?

WHAT HAPPENED AFTER TITLE I FUNDS TERMINATED?

When the research team interviewed administrators of higher education in California where Title I funds had been used, they found that the following occurrences had taken place:

1. Some efforts terminated intentionally by the institutions of higher education after they had fulfilled an appropriate short-term need (typically, these projects were research projects or catch-up projects for the purpose of providing education to a target group on a one-time basis).
2. Some efforts were terminated by the Title I state agency for various reasons.
3. Some efforts were terminated inappropriately due primarily to the lack of available resources even though they had demonstrated their value and worth (typically, these were new types of programs which were viewed as having low priority by the institutions of higher education).
4. A very few efforts were continued inappropriately (typically, these were programs where the need no longer existed or the methods or approaches used were demonstrated to be obsolete or ineffective).
5. Still other efforts were continued appropriately (typically, these projects were intentionally developmental and were considered to be valuable enough for the

institution(s) of higher education or agency(s) in the community to continue them through inclusion, merger, or adoption).

The administrators interviewed were, for the most part, very appreciative of the role which Title I funds had played in their institutions. They reported that where efforts were intended to terminate, the projects had fulfilled a critical need and that, as administrators, they were satisfied that the projects were no longer needed. There were a few projects that were intended to continue, but they did not turn out to be valuable. When this occurred, the efforts were appropriately terminated. Even in these cases, the administrators reported that there were unintended, beneficial spin offs and that they were able to determine what should not be tried on a larger scale.

Nearly all the administrators expressed concern about efforts which were inappropriately terminated. One administrator, who was describing the whole picture of federal funding, stated:

> *There is a vast graveyard of very worthwhile and valuable federal projects. When projects are funded, there needs to be a plan for the possible continuation of the project. (Note: Projects by definition end at the termination of the funding. The efforts may or may not continue.) It is a terrible waste that these programs come into being only to die.*

Grant officers and administrative vice presidents were particularly upset when worthwhile developmental projects were allowed to end. Several administrators felt that their institutions were becoming more cautious about the use of federal funds. They wanted their colleges and universities to avoid the embarrassment and accompanying disappointment and disruption which occurs with the termination of worthwhile developmental efforts.

When ways were found to continue developmental efforts started under Title I projects, the administrators were extremely pleased and grateful to the federal government and to the California Postsecondary Education Commission for assisting them in bringing about these changes in their programs. One administrator in a community college said:

> *Title I money won't make something work that just won't work to begin with. But, it has provided a catalytic reaction to get us to do new things faster. It was very helpful to us in demonstrating what could be done. It is now being adopted by the trustees. We have used these successful programs to get others started. It's a coattail effect.*

Some interviewees claimed that if Title I had been an Act that provided extensive institutional funds, such as those provided under Cooperative Extension, the number of worthwhile projects that could have continued would have been larger. Analysis of the data indicates that the state Title I agency funded a large number of projects that were intended to terminate at the end of one year. These projects, for the most part, were funded to provide short-term intensive efforts related to the race and poverty issue during the latter part of the sixties. From approximately 1971 to 1975 the state Title I agency has tended to fund projects for up to three years. The intention during this period was placed on continuation and adoption of Title I efforts. What most of the more recent Title I project directors and their higher education administrators who were interviewed advocated was a strategized developmental approach which would provide for continuation by adoption. The provisions for adoption, they said, should be made in advance in order to make it possible for these efforts begun and strengthened under Title I to continue. One administrator in a state university said:

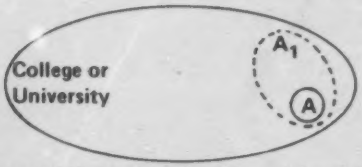
> *Maybe you try a lot of innovations to see if all or any are any good. But we need to ask, "Does a proposal have a plan for adoption in case it becomes successful?" The grant applications should have a question on them which forces the proposer to make a*

long-range commitment. It has to be specific and related to phrases or segments of the project. Unless this happens, most project efforts vanish. It is incredibly important that we plan at the outset what will happen to a project when the federal money terminates.

The research team identified several Title I projects where plans and strategies had been made at the outset for the institutional adoption of these programs which subsequently were adopted successfully. In these cases, both the university personnel and the state Title I agency were pleased with the results. There was general agreement that federal money that eventuated in an adoption was extremely beneficial and provided for long-range effects.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF PROJECTS TO INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

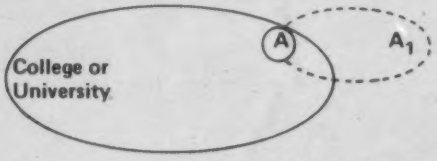
During the interviews the research team explored with college and university administrators and Title I project directors the ways in which projects were related to their institutions during the period of federal funding and after the federal funding terminated. In some cases where projects were still receiving federal funds, the interviewees were asked to explain what they thought was likely to occur in the future and what they would suggest as the most promising approaches project directors could use to assure a project's efforts continuing. The interviewees indicated in their responses that during the funding phase of Title I projects there were four primary patterns of relationships between the projects and their institutions of higher education: (1) the project assisted the *expansion of an existing program* in the higher education institution; (2) the project assisted the *extension of an existing program* in the higher education institution; (3) the project assisted in the *implantation of a new program* inside the institution of higher education; and (4) the project assisted in *adding a new program* onto the higher education institution, usually for a short period of time. Each of these relationships constituted a different potentiality for continuation. The following figures will illustrate:



A – Existing Program
A_1 – Expansion Using Federal Funds

When an *existing program was expanded* and there continued to be a need for the program, there was a high probability that the expanded program continued through adoption by the college or university.

FIGURE 10: Expansion of an Existing Program



A – Existing Program
A_1 – Extension Using Federal Funds

When an *existing program was extended* to new clients or extended to new areas, there sometimes was a high probability for continuation depending upon the acceptability of the new clients culturally or financially as perceived by the college or university. If the new clients, however, paid their own way, the program was likely to be continued.

FIGURE 11: Extension of an Existing Program

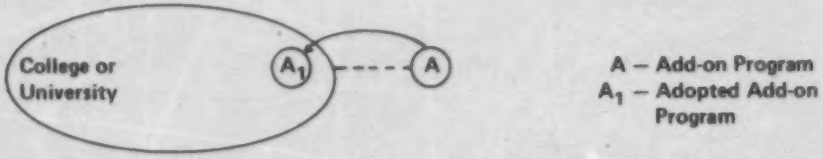
When an *implantation of a program* occurred, it usually was funded as a high priority of a senior administrator and as a consequence it had a high probability of continuing in its funded form following the termination of the federal funding.

FIGURE 12: Add-into or Implantation of a Program

When a program was *added on outside* the structure of a college or university through the use of federal funds, it was usually viewed as marginal. Its termination followed the end of federal funding and was in most cases not noticed by the institution.

FIGURE 13: Add-on Outside Program

After Title I funding was curtailed or terminated, additional relationships between the developed programs sometimes took place in order to affect the continuation or adoption of the efforts. These are described below:

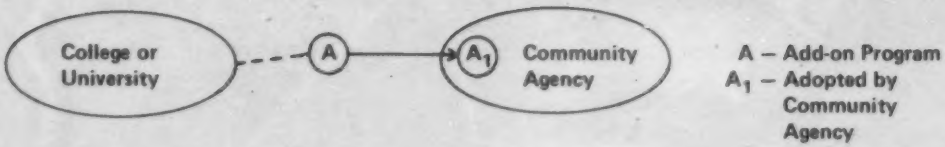


When a program that was begun as an outside add-on through the use of Title I was brought into the ongoing administrative structure of a college or university and adopted, it usually was the result of extensive planning or of agreement to do so in advance, pending the success of the project.

FIGURE 14: Add-on Outside Program Which is Adopted

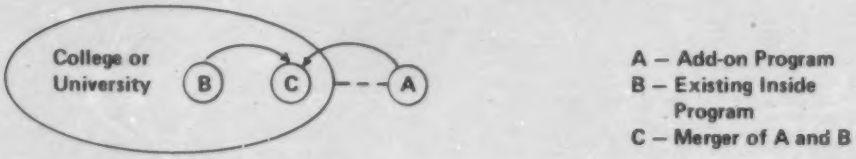
When a program that was begun as an outside add-on to a college or university through the use of Title I and achieved independence, it was usually due to its becoming funded by voluntary contributions or alternative local, state, or federal funds which did not come through colleges or universities.

FIGURE 15: Add-on Program Which Achieves Independence



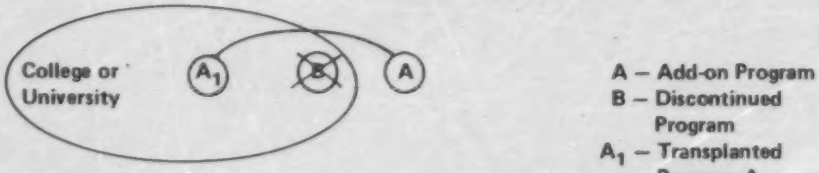
When an add-on program was adopted by a community agency, it usually was because the community agency was initially involved in the planning for the college or university add-on Title I program and because the agency developed a stake in keeping it going.

FIGURE 16: Add-on Outside Program Which is Adopted by an Outside Agency or Organization



When an add-on outside program was adopted through a merger, it usually was a result of an administrative structural change in the college or university involving a redefinition of administrative responsibility or a reconceptualization of functions.

FIGURE 17: Add-on Outside Program Which is Merged with an Inside Program in the College or University



When a transplantation or substitution of a Title I program occurred, it usually was a result of successfully competing with programs in a climate of scarcity of institutional funding.

FIGURE 18: Transplantation or Substitution of the Federally Funded Program for an Existing Program Which is Discontinued

Although each of the above patterns of relating Title I projects to higher education institutions constitute different potentialities for strengthening and continuing efforts begun under Title I funding, it is the opinion of the research team that administrators and project directors could make gains by conceptualizing and selecting these relationships to improve the chances of their efforts being continued. The analysis of the data indicates that all too often the issue of the continuation of Title I efforts tends to emerge toward the end of the federal funding period. When administrators and project directors addressed the issue at the outset of the project and plans were made to prepare for continuation either in stages or all at once at the termination of funding, the efforts were more likely to persist.

Table 7 depicts the distribution of 102 out of 153 Title I projects in California (1966-1974) according to types of continuing relationships that occurred after Title I funding was curtailed or terminated.

TABLE 7
Distribution of Title I Projects in California (1966-1974)
According to Types of Continuing Relationships that Occurred
After Title I Funding was Curtailed or Terminated
N = 106 out of 153 Title I Projects*

Types of Continuing Relationships that Occurred After Title I Funding was Terminated	Types of Higher Education Segments in California				
	UC	CSUC	CC	Private	Total
Nonadopted Programs (most of these were add-on programs)	24	18	5	8	58
Adopted Add-on Programs		8	9		17
Expanded Existing Program Continued		1	3		4
Extended Existing Program Continued	1	4	3	3	11
Add-on Program—Independent	2	2		1	5
Add-on Program—Adopted by Community Agency	1	3		1	5
Add-on Merged Program		1	1		2
Add-on Substitution Program		1			1
Add-into Implantation Program			3		3
Total					106

*Data were not available for all Title I projects since some were still being funded and others were not contacted during the study.

WHAT WAS STRENGTHENED?

According to Section 101 of Title I, the purpose of the Act is to assist "the people of the United States in the solution of community problems by enabling the Commissioner to make grants under this title to *strengthen* community service programs of colleges and universities." During the interviewing, administrators and project directors were asked, "In what ways and to what extent has community service been strengthened through Title I projects in your institution?" It can be assumed that Title I funds themselves constituted some strengthening during the duration of the funding. At least new or additional funds and personnel were available for community service activities. What was of primary interest in the interviewing was the *stengthening* that afforded a continuing capability to perform community service, especially following the termination of Title I funding. The responses to this inquiry varied greatly.

Several general categories of responses emerged upon analysis of the data. They will be described briefly in rank order of the frequency with which they were reported by the interviewees.

Positive attitudes toward the project, the college or university, or the community service function of higher education were most frequently reported as having been strengthened or continued following the termination of Title I funding. Examples of responses which indicated a *strengthened reputation* follow:

The project has given the university a positive public image. We have built a good reputation in the eyes of the community.

The project changed attitudes toward community service as a viable part of the university program. Many faculty members now support what we are doing in the community.

Title I raised the level of awareness of the faculty and the administration concerning the potential utilization of resources and the value of communication with community agencies.

We received public recognition from the County Board of Supervisors and the Mayor and the State Legislature.

The continued use of *knowledge, concepts, models, or methods* generated by Title I projects also was reported frequently as having been strengthened and continued following the termination of Title I funding. Examples of these responses follow:

Some academic departments have changed their approach to teaching as a result of their contacts with the agencies through the Title I project. That is continuing.

The books which were produced through the project have been used all over the nation.

The training tools which were developed are being used in the department here and at other universities.

The departments are now pushing the development of internships in the community.

What was developed in the Title I program was a model. That model has now spread to at least six other universities.

There is a difference in the type of courses offered in the departments as a result of the project.

The continued participation on the part of students who had become involved through a Title I project was reported in approximately one-third of the colleges and universities where interviewing occurred. In most of these instances, the types of students who were continuing to participate were women, elderly, or minorities who had not been related previously to the colleges or universities. They, in turn, had introduced others of their group to higher education. Examples of responses which indicated a *strengthening of enrollment* follow:

The project has brought new minority students to our campus. They are now bringing their friends. Enrollment is increasing.

A number of new students (minorities and women) now see the campus as their own.

Title I helped generate new students through the contacts we built with the agencies. The administration realizes that we have been a factor in the increased enrollment.

The development of new networks of relationships reported by interviewees was next in frequency. Almost all project directors referred to this as occurring during the funding period. Whether these relationships continued following the termination of Title I funding depended primarily upon the continuation of the program staff in permanent positions. Because many Title I projects employed part-time or nontenured personnel who were not continued as employees after the Title I funding terminated, the networks of relationships which they were instrumental in establishing tended to disintegrate. Nevertheless, in a number of cases these

networks were strengthened and continued. Examples of responses referring to the continuation of *networks of relationships* follow:

> *Through the Title I project we were able to establish contact with several minority communities. Our staff built trust with them. It is continuing because we have hired the staff permanently.*
>
> *Title I helped us to reach the poor and to build relationships with them. The structure of these relationships has continued after the end of the funding. We know the agency people now and can refer our students to them personally.*
>
> *We built a relationship with the public libraries that will continue.*
>
> *Some departments of the university are now continuing to work together.*
>
> *The Title I project has solidified the working relationship between the center and the continuing education division.*

The increase in the *capability and expertise of project personnel* and of faculty members associated with the Title I effort also was reported by interviewees. Examples of responses referring to this follow:

> *The staff of our Title I project learned a lot through this experience. We not only know more about the community and the agencies, but we know much more about the university and how to use its resources.*
>
> *What I received from the project was the awareness of the need to include in my teaching more illustrations from the world of professional practice. Through the Title I experience, I now have more first-hand knowledge. It has helped my teaching of students.*

Examples of responses referring to the continuation of the Title I project efforts through strengthening of existing *administrative structures* or the development and adoption of new structures follow:

> *The Title I project has strengthened the capabilities of the Student Activities Office. Before the project, the faculty usually perceived the office as an unnecessary extra-curricular activity. Now they are beginning to recognize that what we are doing is relevant to the academic areas and to academic learning.*
>
> *We now have an administrative capability of extending classes to all parts of the county.*
>
> *We have institutionalized a number of the programs which were started under Title I. Title I was the main component for accomplishing this. The administrative units, including most of the staff, continue to operate. In most cases they have expanded.*
>
> *Our Center which was started under Title I is now a place where strategizing for our whole college happens.*
>
> *I think that it is now possible for the college to accept the Center, which was started under Title I, as a central function.*
>
> *The project provided the springboard for us to revise and reorganize our consortium of deans from the community colleges of our region. This reorganized consortium will continue after the funding runs out.*
>
> *The structure for our program has been merged into a new department. It has provided us with a permanent home in the institution.*

In summary, analysis of the data indicates that in cases where interviewees reported that Title I projects had strengthened their institutions of higher education, they were referring to (1) positive reputation; (2) use of knowledge, concepts, models, and methods; (3) increased enrollment; (4) new networks of relationships; (5) trained personnel, and (6) new structures or existing improved administrative structures. These were cited above in descending order from those most frequently referred to by interviewees to those least often mentioned.

Analysis of the data indicated, furthermore, that the definition of "strengthening" varied from institution to institution. The responses differed according to three main meanings. They are as follows:

1. Increasing the *size* of programs or activities constituted strengthening. This meant that either more persons were involved or that the scope of the activity had increased. For example, new activities were added or more academic departments were involved or more faculty members or students were participating.

2. Increasing the operating *energy* of programs or activities constituted strengthening. This meant that the force, vigor, potency, intensity, or ability to perform had increased. For example, new powerful or efficient methods were being used, or professional competency had been increased, or participants were showing a greater commitment to activities.

3. Increasing the *centrality* of programs or activities within the mission of the higher education institution constituted strengthening. This meant that there had been a decrease in the marginality of the program and an increase in viewing the program as having a higher priority. For example, the program received public recognition by the president, or staff persons were allowed greater representation in decision making in the institution, or the program was moved structurally within the institution so as to provide greater power or recognition.

A fourth meaning of the term "strengthening" also emerged through analysis of the data. It is more related to the task of strengthening the capability of the effort to continue or endure. Its meaning can be defined as follows:

4. Increasing the *durability* of programs or activities constituted strengthening. This meant that programs or activities had a high prospect of continuing in the future and could withstand an adverse climate and still survive. For example, the program may have received a long-term funding commitment, or achieved support of friends in high places who provided cover, or obtained a measure of independence through an organizational or structural arrangement with the institution.

In some cases administrators provided evidence that the strengthening which had occurred through programs and activities which illustrated all four of the above meanings of the term "strengthening." However, in most of the cases discussed during the interviewing, fewer than four of the above usages applied. Typical trade-offs were involved. For example, a program may have increased in size for the duration of the federal grant, but it may not have strengthened its durability. The faculty may not have accepted the type of program being offered; consequently, it may have been very vulnerable to cut-backs. On the other hand, if the program had been closely allied with faculty values, it may not have been able to increase in size because of academic requirements imposed by the faculty.

Further, a project may have developed extensive vitality or energy as a result of building on the interests and needs of previously unserved clients. Yet, conducting education of this type was not always valued by the college or university. Where this occurred the project

sacrificed strengthening its centrality in the institution to strengthening the energy of the program with its clients. This emphasis upon energy often tended to produce a demand on the part of clients for the program's continuation. Sometimes this demand produced a durable program because it became independent from the institution of higher education. In other cases, the demand was not recognized as having high priority by the institution of higher education and the program was cut back or terminated.

In most cases where a program achieved centrality in the higher education institution, it had a high probability of achieving durability. Durability of a program, however, did not necessarily mean that the program would continue to have energy and size. Becoming too establishment-oriented sometimes meant that the program lost some of its client support. It appears, theoretically that administrators and project directors in colleges and universities using federal grant money for developmental projects could make gains in planning by taking into consideration the trade-offs previously mentioned. At least such considerations could provide insight into the nature of realistic expectations related to strengthening.

When the data relating to the categories of *what* was strengthened and continued were analyzed according to predominant contribution to the alternative *forms of strengthening*, several patterns emerged.

According to the judgment of the research team, after data analysis, strengthening the positive reputation of community service programs and institutions sometimes increased the size of the original effort, but usually it contributed to the energy and centrality of the continuing education program. A positive reputation tended to encourage participation within the college or university. Public recognition usually provided visibility which contributed to an increased appreciation of the significance of the effort by those who were at the center of the institution. Administrators did not want to cause an evaporation of a positive reputation through the discontinuation of a popular program so sometimes durability resulted.

Strengthening the use of knowledge, concepts, models, and methods usually contributed to the energy of efforts. Improved knowledge, concepts, models, and methods sometimes contributed to durability, depending upon whether they were appreciated and valued by those at the center of the institution or depending upon their academic soundness.

Increased enrollment contributed to the size and energy of efforts. It sometimes was related to gains in centrality and durability, depending upon the compatibility of types of new students with the mission of the institution and the economic assets of such an increase.

New networks of relationships contributed to the size and energy of efforts due primarily to the expansion and cross-fertilization of contacts. New networks of relations sometimes contributed to the centrality of efforts, depending upon whether the networks involved those who were in authority at the center of the institution. The durability of these networks tended to be dependent upon the continuation of project staff on a permanent basis in the institution.

Trained personnel similarly contributed energy to program efforts. Their expertise sometimes generated large constituencies, depending upon the type of program. Often they contributed to the centrality of the effort, depending upon their status in the institution. Sometimes they contributed to the durability of efforts if their expertise was recognized and appreciated to the extent that they were rewarded by being made permanent members of the faculty or administration.

Improved administrative structures sometimes contributed to the increased size of efforts by enabling more appropriate delivery systems to operate. They sometimes contributed to increased energy through greater efficiency. Certainly, they contributed to centrality and durability through bureaucratic formalization.

According to the findings, strengthening the size and energy of efforts did not necessarily insure centrality or durability. All too frequently the size and energy of the effort was short

lived unless the centrality and durability of networks of relations, trained personnel, and administrative structures were strengthened.

THE NATURE OF THE CONTINUATION PROCESS

The research team discovered from the analysis of the data that the *strengthening* and *continuing* process were distinct, yet closely related. Their relationships and differences are illustrated through the following analogies. The efforts of a Title I project staff to strengthen community service in an institution of higher education can be likened to the efforts of a family doctor who is seeking to strengthen his/her practice by: (a) providing excellent emergency treatment; (b) encouraging his/her patients to come for regular, preventive check-ups rather than to treat themselves in case of serious medical problems, and (c) acquiring new capabilities as a general practitioner for service to these clients. If this *strengthening* occurs, it is in both the doctor's and the patient's interest that these strengthened capabilities be *continued* instead of being simply a temporary service. In fact, the reputation of the doctor may be seriously damaged if patients come to expect the strengthened service and it is no longer available.

Another way of viewing the strengthening process as relating to the continuation process is to liken the efforts of universities and colleges in Title I consortial projects to the way an extended family seeks to *strengthen* itself for survival through sharing of resources. In this case the strengthening is not only for the purpose of meeting a temporary crisis of individual family members, but to enable the family to *continue* through the next generation.

Title I project directors and administrators have indicated that it was not only important to strengthen the community and continuing education capability, but additionally it was important to find ways to continue these efforts. According to the analysis of the data from this study, there were three primary patterns for the continuation of efforts which were started under Title I funding. They can be described as: (1) the catalytic reaction pattern, (2) the adoption pattern, and (3) the prevention of rejection pattern. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

The Catalytic Reaction Pattern

Approximately one-third of those who were interviewed saw the continuation pattern of Title I projects as a catalytic reaction. The project, they said, had provided the basis for the acceleration of change in their colleges and universities. The efforts of a Title I project staff in this instance can be likened to the chain reaction which occurs on a pool table after the cue ball is first hit, especially if it strikes a large number of balls sequentially. For those who viewed Title I project efforts in these terms, the task of continuation became one of appreciating, conserving, and building upon the initial force which had stimulated the system.

The Adoption Pattern

Approximately one-third of these who were interviewed considered the continuation pattern of Title I projects as adoption. This was the primary pattern when Title I projects were

funded as additions to the college or university administrative structures (see Figure 13). The efforts of a Title I project staff in this instance can be likened to the adoption of a child as opposed to leaving him/her in an orphanage or in a foster home as long as some outside agency pays the bill. Adoption means choosing to take as one's own a person, function, or program. Projects started under federal money are usually viewed as an outside aid or help. Once developed they may or may not be adopted. For those who viewed Title I project efforts as requiring adoption, the task of continuation became one of getting the program accepted and then internalized by the system, including the identification and utilization of alternative sources of funding. Analysis of the data indicates that the adoption process for innovations by individuals which has been identified by Havelock (1973, pp. 113-117) is similar to that which occurred with Title I efforts. The six phases in the process of individual adoption according to Havelock are: (1) awareness, (2) interest, (3) evaluation, (4) trial, (5) adoption, and (6) integration. In the case of Title I projects, directors tended to describe the awareness and interest phases as "promoting" the project with administrators or as engaging in a "courtship" relationship with administrators or trustees who had authority to make decisions which could provide for the continuation of the program through adoption. The evaluation and trial phases were accomplished through the implementation of the project and reporting beneficial consequences to those who had authority to adopt it. The integration phase was most often described as a task of routinizing the communication and interaction between the newly adopted program or activity and other activities in the institution. No interviewee described this task as easy. One administrator characterized the adoption process in this way:

> *Adoption is a fragile arrangement. It is like throwing a plank over a stream. We all tiptoe across the first plank. Each day a new plank is added and eventually we can build a bridge. You can't built it all at once at the end of a project. You have to be building it from the beginning, and planks have to be built to all the important people.*

The Prevention of Rejection Pattern

Approximately one-fifth of those who were interviewed perceived the continuation pattern of Title I projects as the prevention of rejection. This was the primary pattern when Title I projects were funded as expansions of existing programs (see Figure 10), or as extensions (see Figure 11), or as implantations (see Figure 12). The efforts of Title I staff in these instances may be likened to the efforts of a successfully married couple to keep their relationship alive and growing after a number of years of marriage. Using still another analogy, the task can be likened to the efforts of a hospital staff to prevent the rejection of an artificial or transplanted organ by the patient's body following surgery. In the latter case the task calls for protecting the patient from undue attack from disease and providing the necessary environment and resources so that the potentially promising gains which were made during the surgery can be stabilized and maintained.

For those who viewed the Title I project's gains in these terms, the continuation task became one of stabilizing the gains which had been made. For example, one Title I effort may have developed strong support from students and community organizations. The administrators may have provided strong backing for the program in the budget. If this effort is not stabilized through gaining the support of faculty, especially in certain involved departments, the program may be under attack and may be rejected in budget deliberations in the succeeding year. In another example, an administrator may have made a decision to support the continuation of a Title I program through the use of discretionary funds. However, if the program does not

become well intermeshed with other programs, resistance from these other programs could develop, causing pressure to discontinue the new one.

This pattern of prevention of rejection also can be viewed as providing closure. Hawley (1968) defines the state of closure as follows:

> Closure can only mean that development has terminated in a more or less complete system that is capable of sustaining a given relationship to environment indefinitely . . .
>
> Under these circumstances, certain conditions of equilibrium are held to obtain: the functions involved are mutually complementary and collectively provide the conditions essential to the continuation of each; the number of individuals engaged in each function is just sufficient to maintain the relations of the functions to each other and to all other functions; and the various units are arranged in time and space so that the accessibility of one to others bears a direct relation to the frequency of exchanges between them (p. 334).

However, Havelock (1973, 10-11) suggests that systems have a strong tendency to fall back to their former state of balance after a change intervention has been introduced. The large number of successful innovations which have been accepted and then discontinued attest to the need for what he calls the "refreezing process." Attention on the part of project directors and administrators to the task of stabilizing the gains made through Title I projects through prevention of rejection was found to be essential to the continuation of Title I efforts.

CONTINUATION STRATEGIES

Project directors were asked during the interviewing process to describe the strategies and tactics which they and others had used to build support for the continuation of their efforts after the termination of Title I funding. A strategy can be defined as an overall plan of operation for gaining an advantage or goal. A tactic can be defined as a specific action step in a sequence of action steps that make up strategies (see Havelock, 1973, p. 153). The strategies and tactics that the interviewees reported reflect great diversity of leadership styles and change theories. Through analysis of data, the following general categories of strategies and tactics emerged:

1. *The Personal Influence Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) build positive relationships and friendships with those who have influence; (b) include those with influence on advisory groups or in decision making; (c) train themselves in human relations and the art of helping and being helped; and (d) introduce people to each other and encourage mutual linkage, friendship, and support. It is based on the assumption that those who have the authority or power to continue the project can be encouraged to make positive decisions by effective human interaction and participation.

2. *The Political Influence Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) identify the nature of political decision making which may affect the continuation of the project, both on and off campus; (b) build constituencies among those who can influence political decision making relating to the project; (c) encourage the election or appointment to key committees or positions of persons who are

favorable to the continuation of the Title I effort; and (d) encourage those who have political power and are favorable to the Title I efforts to use their power and influence with others at strategic times. This strategy is based on the assumption that key decisions which favor continuation of efforts are based primarily on political power rather than on merit or other bases.

3. *The Timely Important Issue Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) connect the project conceptually to a rising popular need or public concern which is "coming of age," (b) cite national authorities who recognize the issue as significant and demonstrate how the project makes a contribution, (c) identify faculty members and others who already recognize the importance of the issue and cultivate their support for the project, (d) communicate to those who are in positions of authority that the project is linked to other efforts on a state or national basis. This strategy is based on the assumption that institutions are more likely to respond favorably to innovative programming if it is perceived as a national priority or is being recognized by other institutions which are the pacesetters of new directions.

4. *The Reconceptualization Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) analyze the way in which concepts which are related to the understanding of the purpose and value of the project are being defined and used by decision makers who can affect the continuation of the project efforts, (b) reconceptualize the project and the words which describe it so that negative associations are avoided and positive values which are held by key decision makers are associated with the purposes of the project, (c) create conceptual overviews of higher education which incorporate the project as a central function. This strategy is based on the assumption that semantic and conceptual analysis are important tools in values clarification which may affect positive responses to activities which previously have been viewed as marginal.

5. *The Cumulative Success Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) create a series of small successes in the project so that there will be a "snowball" effect, (b) link the project to successful efforts elsewhere, (c) point out to key decision makers that there have been successful precedents in the history of higher education, (d) encourage public recognition for the achievements of the program. This strategy is based on the assumption that pride of accomplishment produces a self-fulfilling prophecy and that successful efforts are more difficult to terminate without public outcry.

6. *The Information Dissemination Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) keep key decision makers informed about the progress of the project at regular intervals, (b) use mass media for building a positive public image of achievements, (c) provide evaluative data to decision makers on the beneficial consequences of the efforts. This strategy is based on the assumption that if decision makers are well informed they will make rational decisions related to the continuation of the effort and that visibility of the effort is advantageous to its continuation.

7. *The Charismatic Leader Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) select staff persons who already have a popular following in either the institution of higher education or the community or who are likely to develop strong loyalties on the part of constituents or key decision makers; (b) provide public recognition to the achievements or endorsements of persons who are well known and respected in the eyes of the administrators or community, i.e., celebrities and politicians. This strategy is based on the assumption that organizational values can be changed through the influence of status personalities.

8. *The Organizational Consortia Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) share project models and resources between institutions so that status and credibility from accomplishments of all the institutions can be appropriated; (b) secure

representation for the consortium from the highest levels of administration using administrative counterparts on each campus as the incentive for participation; (c) assign task responsibilities according to institutional capability; (d) identify the mutual benefits and pay offs for participation on the part of each institution and use these as a basis for programming; and (e) plan the continuation of the effort so that additional funding can be secured from each institution on a formula basis. This strategy is based on the assumption that greater status, visibility, productivity, and accountability will occur through interinstitutional efforts and that the benefits from coordination outweigh the effort to sustain the administrative framework.

9. *The Faculty Rewards Strategy* calls for project personnel to: (a) systematically identify the research and teaching interests of faculty members within an institution; (b) make this information available through linking agents to agencies, associations, and government; (b) utilize the diagnostic abilities of faculty members which can be combined with the diagnostic abilities of professionals in the community; (d) encourage faculty participation for only those functions which can be rewarded through the existing reward structure or identify specific ways that the reward system could be reinforced through local policy change. This strategy is based on the assumption that faculty members will participate in community problem solving if it is relevant to their research interest or their teaching capability and provides a pay off in money, status, professional advancement, or personal satisfaction. The extent to which community problem solvers are able to intersect these interests explicitly in invitations to faculty participation will determine the extent of productive faculty participation. It is assumed that community problem solving is more likely to be continued if it is tied with the primary function of higher education, i.e., teaching and research.

When the data pertaining to the strengthening and continuing process were related to the three main approaches to continuing education and community service—higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented (see Table 6, p. 67) several generalizations appeared to the research team. They are as follows:

1. Higher Education-Oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs tended to have a high potential for being continued and adopted by institutions of higher education when they were used to extend or expand existing programs or when they were implanted alongside of existing programs or when they were merged with existing programs.

2. Community-Oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs tended to have a low potential for being continued or adopted, especially when they were add-on programs. A few of these programs either became independent or were adopted by agencies. According to interviewee opinions, they did have a catalytic pattern of continuation.

3. Broker-Oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs tended to have a fair potential for being adopted, especially if status persons or programs in the institutions were involved in achieving educational goals that were mutually held by community participants.

4. Community-Oriented and Broker-Oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs tended to provide the institutions of higher education the most positive reputation in the view of the community.

5. All three types of Title I programs, according to interviewee opinion, made contributions to the use of knowledge, concepts, models, and methods.

6. Community-Oriented and Broker-Oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs tended to contribute to the building of new networks of relations.

7. Higher Education-Oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs tended to be received more favorably by members of the faculty.

8. All three types of Title I programs tended to contribute to the increase of enrollment in higher education.

9. Community-Oriented and Broker-Oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs tended to be characterized as having greater operating energy than Higher Education-Oriented programs which in contrast tended to be characterized as having greater centrality and durability.

The primary clusters of variables that were found to affect higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented Title I continuing education and community service programs in relation to the possibility of their being strengthened and continued will be discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

MAJOR VARIABLES AFFECTING STRENGTHENING AND CONTINUING

In the course of interviewing higher education administrators, project directors, faculty members, grant officers, and agency personnel, the research team asked the interviewees to describe the forces which were helping or hindering the process of strengthening and continuing the efforts which were started under Title I funding. Analysis of the data indicates that seven primary clusters of variables were affecting or could affect the strengthening and continuation process in the future. They are:

1. Administrative and Structural Variables
2. Community Organization and Agency Variables
3. Faculty Support Variables
4. Participant and Client Variables
5. Project Staff Variables
6. Institutional Priority Variables
7. Financial Resource Variables

Each of these clusters of variables will be discussed in turn. A statement of the relative strength of each cluster of variables in relationship to the strengthening and continuing of higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented Title I continuing education and community services (see Table 6) will be included in the discussion.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND STRUCTURAL VARIABLES

As a part of the interview process, higher education administrators, project directors, faculty members, and agency personnel were asked by the research team to describe the institutional, administrative, and structural variables which were affecting the strengthening and continuation of programs which were begun through Title I or other extramural funding. Analysis of the data indicate that these variables were having a very strong affect upon this process.

Differences, of course, existed in the capabilities of institutions of higher education. For instance, while community colleges on the whole do not have a research mission for contributing to a statewide societal problem, they do have the capability to provide narrow-aim instrumental type programs. They are theoretically able to provide broad-aimed instrumental community development programs, but generally they have not been involved in this type of education. Their programs have been traditionally focused on the individual, occupational, and aggregate group development and problem-solving levels.

The research capability of the California State University and Colleges system is greater than that of the community colleges, but their primary educational responsibility is the instruction of large numbers of students. The California State University and Colleges have extensive faculty resources which are oriented both to research and to instruction, which, theoretically, could be made available for continuing education and community service of all types.

The University of California has capability both in instruction and in research, but it is the primary state supported academic agency for research. As an educational institution, it is less identified with local communities. The type of research found in the University of California system is most likely to be basic, but when it is applied research it is most applicable at the state or national level. There is little incentive in this system to provide education to the wider community except through its Extension and Extended University units. These units, however, tend to be structurally isolated and marginal to the campus departments and schools. The resources of the campus departments and schools are potentially great; yet their actual use through the Extension units is at present somewhat limited.

The combination of all these public systems, at least in theory, could provide extensive resources to meet society's needs in development and problem solving. The main structural limitation appears to be the lack of a linkage and incentive mechanism which could appropriately identify and match resources with community needs.

A second structural and administrative variable reported by interviewees was the stage of institutional development. During periods of rapid institutional growth, administrators reported that it was easier to adopt new programs. When institutions reached maturity or slowed down in growth, it was the opinion of most interviewees that it was more difficult to add new programs or functions. They also reported that it was difficult to terminate existing obsolete programs and to replace them with new ones because doing so meant making difficult staff changes. While younger institutions were generally more willing to entertain innovative programs, the factor of institutional growth potential tended to be a stronger variable than that of the age of a campus.

An administrator in a state college said:

> *If we are in a period of growth, then we have more financial flexibility. We can adopt more then. But, if we are in a "steady state" situation, it is hard to adopt. We are still expanding here and we can adopt the Title I project. (This college is about ten years old.)*

Obviously, some institutions of higher education are more open to change than others. During periods of reorganization, there was an increased possibility for continuing education and community service programs to be strengthened and adopted. In periods of relative environmental stability, the status of continuing education and community service programs tended to remain stable. On the whole, however, most of California State University and Colleges and the community colleges were not characterized as stable in the opinion of their

administrators. The community colleges have experienced extremely rapid growth recently, especially in response to adult students. The California State University and Colleges have experienced an increased interest in continuing education due partly to the potential decline, and in some cases actual decline, in the numbers of traditional students (18-24 years of age). This situation has provided continuing education and community service with an opportunity to redefine their place within the structure of these institutions.

Another variable affecting the strengthening and adoption process was the locus of the decision-making process in the institutions of higher education. In some institutions, it was reported that there was a great deal of decision-making power and control within the local campus, school, department, or extension unit. In other institutions, decision making was reported to be highly centralized at the top of the administrative system at the state level. It was the research team's opinion that there was a greater potentiality for adoption when the decision-making process was controlled at the local or decentralized level. When resources could not be found locally or when policy and structural changes had to be approved at the statewide level, the potentiality for adoption decreased unless a major effort was made to make the adoption in all of the campuses statewide.

Strategies for Responding to Variables

The analysis of the data indicates that there were important differences in the potentiality for strengthening and continuing programs started under Title I according to their administrative location and to that of other extramural projects. The alternative higher education program structures are shown in Table 8 along with their estimated potential for providing strengthening and continuation.

The reader will note in Table 8 that the estimated potential for strengthening and adoption was not very promising for Summer and Winter Sessions, External or Extended Degree Units, Extension or Continuing Education Units. The explanation for this lies in the fact that in most institutions these units in the University of California and in the California State University and Colleges system are self-supporting which presents a formidable limitation on the strengthening and continuing process. The evening college and continuing education units of the community colleges provide a greater potential for strengthening and continuing primarily because of the possibility of receiving average daily attendance reimbursement from state funds.

Research Units or Centers, however, tend to depend on "soft" funding; their Title I projects typically were terminal in nature. Community Development Centers, Public Affairs or Community Service Offices have a low potential due to the tendency to consider them marginal to the regular academic programs of higher education. Administrative Offices and Student Services Units have a somewhat higher potential for strengthening and continuing of Title I community service programs because they are within the central administration of each campus and have access to some discretionary funds. Departments or schools have a still higher potential for strengthening and continuation since these units are considered central to the function of higher education, and their faculty members have a considerable amount of authority as a group in higher education. Resistance to strengthening and continuation on the part of faculty members will be discussed in the section on faculty variables. In spite of resistance, a decision by a department or a school to adopt a Title I effort may be considered more permanent than a decision by any other unit. Consortial Units have been found to have a higher potential for continuation when they have involved administrators at the top levels from each institution. Communication and administrative networks which have been created as a

TABLE 8
Estimated Ratings of Higher Education Program Structures According to Their Potential for Strengthening and Continuing What Was Started or Expanded by Title I Efforts

Higher Education Program Structure	Estimated Rating According to the Potential for Strengthening and Continuing of What Was Started or Expanded Through Title I		
	Higher Education-Oriented Programs	Community-Oriented Programs	Broker-Oriented Programs
Research Unit or Center	☐	☐	☐
Community Development Center	☐	☐	☐
Public Affairs or Community Service Office	☐	☐	☐
Department or School	☐	☐	☐
Administrative Offices	☐	☐	☐
Student Services Units	☐	☐	☐
Summer and Winter Sessions	☐	☐	☐
External or Extended Degree Units	☐	☐	☐
Evening College	☐	☐	☐
Extension or Continuing Education Units	☐	☐	☐
Consortial Units	☐	☐	☐

result of the Title I consortia have been considered valuable and alternative sources of funding have been identified in most cases. One administrator who had participated in a consortium said:

> *The consortium has helped us to work together with other institutions. It got us all together to build a framework and a vehicle for our system. It is proving to be testable and feasible. We will find a way to keep it going. In most cases the pattern that has been cast is one where there will be an assimilation of the project tasks into the job descriptions of responsible administrators. We will find the funds we need because it has proved to be important to us.*

When administrators who had participated in consortia were asked to explain the adoption potential for their consortia, they indicated that it took institutional commitment. The following is a typical response:

> *We worked like hell. The model was good. We did it so all participants could take hold. We took time to build the structure. It's based on institutional agreement on what we each wanted to accomplish. It takes a high level of institutional commitment to the project. The project has to be consistent with the goals of each institution. The consortium members have to have common goals. There has to be a trading of resources and a participative style of decision making at all levels.*

Yet another administrative structural variable was discussed during the interviewing. The Joint Commission Report on Postsecondary Education (Vasconcellos, 1973) has proposed the creation of two structures: (1) regional councils for the purpose of coordination among the three segments of higher education and (2) a fourth statewide segment of higher education (California Cooperative University) which would have primary responsibility for continuing education and community service. Administrators and project directors generally were positive toward the first of the proposals. Some of the Title I consortial activity, proposed and supported by the California Postsecondary Education Commission, had already brought into existence cooperation which was the intent of the proposal in several parts of the state. Some administrators mentioned the possibility of strengthening the proposal by integrating participation from agencies, organizations, and government into the regional coordinating councils. On the second proposal there was considerable disapproval. Nearly all administrators indicated that given the same amount of funds which it would take to administer the fourth segment, they could provide a more effective continuing education and community service program than the fourth segment because of the availability of their institutions' departmental and school resources. On the other hand, some project directors were skeptical about the possibility of releasing these resources. Nonetheless, all agreed that the fourth segment proposal had placed the continuing education issue "up front" for discussion.

Types of Programs and Possibilities for Continuation

When all the above institutional and structural variables were taken into consideration in relationship to their influence on higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented Title I continuing education and community services (see Table 6), the following generalizations could be made. There is extensive capability in all three segments of higher education to offering higher education-oriented continuing education. There is some potential in all three segments of higher education for offering community-oriented continuing education. Fewer persons, by background or training, are experienced in implementing community-oriented continuing education. The leveling off or declining enrollments of traditional 18-24 year old students has created some pressures to implement more higher education-oriented programs for nontraditional students. This crisis is creating a readiness for reconceptualization of the administrative funding patterns, administrative structures, and definitions of continuing education and community services. There is a higher potentiality for the adoption of higher education-oriented continuing education programs, especially those which are closely connected with departments or schools. Community-oriented continuing education and community service was most likely to exist in marginal higher education program structures where there was greater flexibility and local control. Community-oriented programs were less likely to become adopted since most of the funding formulas in higher education were not perceived to apply to this type of education. Broker-oriented continuing education programs were found to be operating out of student affairs units, public affairs or community service offices, university extension units and departments. There is a promising potential, in the judgment of the research team, for the development of broker-oriented programs through the inclusion of agency, voluntary association, and governmental representation on regional cooperative councils or consortia. Consortia appear to provide a fairly high possibility for continuing Title I efforts, particularly if senior administrators are involved in their control. Theoretically, the fourth segment proposal would offer greater freedom to implement community-oriented and broker-oriented continuing education; however, the feasibility of this proposal is still under investigation.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION AND AGENCY VARIABLES

In order to obtain data on the influence of community organizations and agencies upon the strengthening and adoption process, interviews were conducted with 16 executives and administrators of some of the major social service agencies which belong to the Community Relations Conference of Southern California. The interview questions that were used by the research team focused on the resources of higher education which were being used by various community agencies. The identification of obstacles to more effective utilization of these resources and the description of the most needed and appropriate higher education resources was also sought from those who were interviewed. Agency influence or its lack upon institutions of higher education was also discussed during the interviewing.

The Nature of the Variables

Agency interviewees expressed a mixture of skepticism, pessimism, frustration, and hope about the prospect of receiving help from institutions of higher education for community problem solving through their agencies.

For the most part, they reported very limited contact with higher education resources in solving pressing community problem. One executive was enthusiastic about the help received from one university department. Others reported that they had received student volunteer labor, faculty consulting, and help with the design of training tools and curriculum for use with clients. Those who were interviewed, surprisingly, did not mention the need for higher education resources in the form of seminars, short courses, and conferences. Generally agency interviewees indicated that they had not received the help that they had hoped for and needed.

The agency interviewees wanted the institutions of higher education to provide them with the following:

1. Research data on community-identified social problems.
2. Academic and research credibility with other agencies and power groups through the use of the institutions' of higher education name on the data.
3. Faculty consultation and technical assistance to staff, advisory groups, and citizens' task forces.
4. Student intern volunteer time for at least 20 hours a week for a minimum of two semesters or two quarters.
5. Faculty assistance in creating training tools and curriculum for clients.
6. Inservice training of agency staff and community leaders, especially human relations training, and the updating of professional knowledge and skills.
7. Academic degree programs which were relevant to existing careers.
8. Leadership support for needed societal change through defense of academic freedom in the discussion of controversial social issues both in the university and in society.
9. Institutional commitment, beyond lip service, to find out the nature and extent of community problems, especially those problems which relate to powerless persons in society.

The community agencies' role perspective tended to begin with the identification of the community need and then to move in the direction of community problem-solving education (see Figure 1). Data from both higher education interviewees and from these agency interviewees evidence the existence of a barrier between the higher education institution and the community agencies. The agency interviewees described the barrier in the following statements:

> *There is a lack of a higher education mechanism or structure for identification of higher education resources which could be relevant to the problems our agencies face. You have to know an individual faculty member personally in order to get anything.*
>
> *The colleges don't provide much incentive for professors to get involved with us. There apparently isn't much money to support the kind of education which is likely to be most helpful to us.*
>
> *There is some distrust of universities on the part of our clients. The people who are powerless don't like being studied with little apparent results or benefits to them. They don't see the universities as being on their side but on the side of the establishment. Some of our clients are anti-intellectual and are suspicious of higher education.*
>
> *The problem with the commitment of students is that it varies and tends to be short lived.*
>
> *The university will not get support from the agencies until it is willing to come to the community leaders and ask them the nature of their problems. The university has to go to the people not just wait for the people to come to it.*

Strategies for Responding to Variables

The agency interviewees identified several strategies and tactics that they hoped would help to strengthen community service and continuing education which was most relevant to their needs. The primary strategy proposed was the creation of consortia, centers, or communication networks between agencies and personnel in institutions of higher education. In the opinion of agency interviewees, the purpose of these relationships would be to communicate the community need to the higher education institutions and to identify and communicate the nature of the higher education expertise and resources to community agencies. In order for this multidisciplinary approach to work, the presence of capable linkage personnel hired either by the agencies or by institutions of higher education would be necessary. The precedent of agricultural extension faculty was noted in regard to this proposal.

The agency interviewees said little that would indicate that their agencies had any influence on the strengthening of community service and continuing education efforts in institutions of higher education. However, the data from higher education administrators indicates that agency recognition of higher education community involvement was viewed positively and was valued in terms of its contribution to a public service image. This public service image was valued more by higher education administrators than by faculty members. Any project which received commendation from an agency and the resultant publicity tended to be more visible on the campus. A project that gained the attention and support of prominent citizens on the community agency boards also tended to gain status in the eyes of the presidents and chancellors. Agency directors were aware that evidence of community support and involvement was required for a number of federal research and public service projects. The fact that agencies have contacts with large numbers of clients, who as citizens can and do exert some legislative or local political influence related to higher education, did not go entirely

unnoticed by higher education administrators. Analysis of the data indicates that community organization and agency influence on the strengthening and continuation of public service has not been great in the past, but it does have potential if ways can be found to link common values in joint enterprises.

Types of Programs and Possibilities for Continuation

When data from community organization and agency interviewees was analyzed in relationship to support influence on higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented continuing education and community service (see Table 6), there was little evidence that agencies support higher education-oriented programs. Almost everything that they wanted from institutions of higher education constituted what has been characterized as community-oriented continuing education and community service. It also should be noted in this connection that research team estimates from the data indicate that there were few community-oriented programs with the exception of Title I efforts which were reported to have existed. This perspective provides an additional explanation for the apparent barrier between community organizations and agencies and the institutions of higher education. In the opinion of some agency interviewees, the broker-oriented continuing education and community service approach had potential for overcoming the barrier.

FACULTY SUPPORT VARIABLES

Since faculty members are a primary resource in every institution of higher education, the extent of faculty participation in and support for continuing education and community service efforts becomes a critical variable in strengthening and continuing these efforts.

The Nature of the Variables

Interview data from this study confirm that faculty participation and support for continuing education and community service efforts was extremely important to the strengthening and continuation process. Lack of faculty support was a problem of critical proportions for many project directors and some administrators. Means of obtaining faculty participation and support became a major issue in many of the interviews. The following statements provide examples of the varied explanations for as to why it was difficult to involve faculty members:

> *Although community service is part of the university image and is therefore part of the faculty member's function, the university has never developed a way of evaluating the quality of participation in it.*
>
> *Our faculty are old and it is a matter of energy. The energy level of teaching staff is proportionate to their age. They are tired.*
>
> *There is faculty resistance to community involvement because it is new to them. It takes more time to learn a new teaching methodology which relates their discipline to what is taking place in the community and the world.*

The faculty is a gold mine, but there are problems of systematically linking their resources with community agencies and persons who need to know what they know. What contacts that do occur happen by serendipity or by personal friendships.

Our university is isolated from society. Community service is left to the president and to faculty spare time.

At the heart of faculty involvement is the faculty rewards system. Most administrators and faculty members who were interviewed said there was no "pay off" for community service in the rewards system. The following statements will illustrate this point of view:

There are few rewards in the review, promotion, and tenure process for faculty members who take on extra projects which don't pay off in publications.

Survival is the primary goal. If the activity is perceived as contributing to the professional development of the faculty member, it is okay. But it is questionable if it does not carry the same value as a journal article. We do not get credit for starting with practice in the field and developing theories. We get credit for publishing our theories.

We get some recognition for community involvement. But, it is not what we really get promoted for. When they find it in the review they are pleased. The institution benefits from it through building a public image, but it is not a criterion for tenure.

In most institutions of higher education the official statements or policy related to the faculty review process list teaching, research, advisement, governance or community activity, and public or community service as faculty responsibilities. The extent to which each is emphasized is directly related to the type of institution. Faculty members in community colleges reported that teaching was the high priority, although community service also was given some recognition. Faculty members in the California State University and Colleges reported that teaching and research were of equal importance but that community service, though recognized, was nonessential. Research was considered more important in the larger institutions of the California State University and Colleges system. These institutions tend to emulate the University of California campuses where published research is considered the primary criterion for promotion.

Strategies for Responding to Variables

Although the problem of faculty involvement was considered formidable, Title I project directors and some administrators reported using a variety of strategies and tactics to increase faculty support and participation in continuing education and community service efforts. The following are examples of approaches:

1. Community service and continuing education was reconceptualized as research or teaching so that it could be used in faculty review.
2. Tenured faculty members, deans, and chairmen of review committees were asked to provide "cover" in terms of protection and support for the activities of nontenured faculty members who participated in community service efforts.
3. Faculty members who were enthusiastic about being involved were given public recognition and letters of commendation for their review files, and were asked to use their influence to get other faculty members to participate.

4. Students were encouraged to put pressure on faculty members to get involved in community activities. Students were also used to assist in identifying faculty members who were most favorable to participation.

5. Deans and vice presidents in some cases endorsed projects and encouraged faculty support including recommendations for participation to review committees.

6. Academic Senate approval was obtained and policies for released time for faculty participation were formulated.

7. Scholars with national reputations were funded through projects in order to draw participation from local faculty who wanted to be associated academically.

8. Referral clearinghouses for processing agency requests and channeling them directly to faculty members were proposed.

The following statements illustrate some unique approaches which were reported:

We took the agency people directly to the faculty members and introduced them. We put the monkey on the back of the faculty members. They came up with a fine program.

What we need to do in the community college is to relate the real world to the disciplines. Every faculty member should think through how his course could be taught through experience in the community. Even the Philosophy Department should look at the way philosophy relates to aging and social justice. Then the discipline would come to life.

First, I secured the senior faculty support. That was the most difficult. Second, I went to the senior administrative officers for consulting advice, and I used that as a strategy for involving them. I then reported back and told them that their advice was helpful. I tried to get the project interpreted in an academically acceptable form so that it could be used to satisfy peer review. I also gave positive feedback through the campus press.

In getting faculty support for the project in our department, we went to the faculty and fought for it. We fielded questions and they decided to go with it. There were only a few who were really disturbed. Things like this project will only get going if the faculty members get behind them.

My strategy is to first win over the chairman or dean. I then try to identify interested faculty members. I induce students to put pressure on these professors to participate. I encourage the Chancellor to publicly back my efforts. It is necessary to demonstrate the academic soundness of the program.

If a faculty member is reported to reject our program, we identify his closest friend who is participating and we give that friend strong public relations praise for his involvement. Faculty also care about their pay and retention. I've been asked a number of times to write letters to deans recommending faculty raises and retention. Community involvement is now emerging as a strong criteria for faculty advancement and retention because the president is behind it.

A number of faculty who had participated in Title I community service projects indicated that they had gained from the experience. One faculty member expressed the benefits as follows:

The real fall out from this program was the impact it had on the faculty members who participated. It affected my teaching and my methods of working with field studies. It affected my own way of thinking about the way students relate to faculty. We built

positive bridges in the community. I learned a lot about agencies. They learned a lot about us. I have become educated about community government. The Chancellor saw it as beneficial to the image of the campus. I don't know if it will hurt my tenure possibilities, but it was a personal quest and it had an impact on me.

The findings from this study show a relatively small proportion of faculty members who participate in continuing education and community service. The distance between the scientist and the practitioner is still very great except for those faculty members who are engaged in private consulting. This distance has been referred to as a research utilization gap (Havelock, 1973, pp. 1-12). Rothman (1974, pp. 554-552) has provided some explanations for this gap which have been confirmed by the data from this study. He states that the dichotomy between the researcher or theoretician at one end of the research utilization process and the practitioner or activist at the other exists because of different styles, modes of thinking, and goals:

> Perhaps the fundamental difference is one of function. This then affects training, which in turn colors values, cognition, style, and the rest. The social scientist has the primary function of *comprehending the world:* producing knowledge that permits him and others to understand it better. The practitioner has the key function of *changing the world* (or more specifically, parts thereof): producing material effects that permit clients, organizations, or communities to behave more advantageously in terms of specific desired outcomes (pp. 545-546).

In order to provide movement across this communication barrier between the faculty member (theorist) and the community learner (practitioner), Rothman (1974) suggests the following tasks for theorists:

1. Provide the research basis for an action principle.
2. Convert the research generalization into its specific applied form.
3. Provide an example showing the implementation of the action guidelines with regard to a problem situation or practice context familiar to the practitioner.
4. The example should be as close as possible to the practitioner's perspective, using practice language or the actual words of similar practitioners.
5. The specific action principle contained in the narrative example should be clearly and simply explicated.
6. State the relevancy of the action guideline to the general practice outlook of the practitioner: his objectives, tasks, problems, needs.
7. Provide definitions, qualifications, and elaborations as appropriate to clarify or amplify use of the action principle.
8. Provide concrete practice examples of all elements of the guideline that have empirical referents.
9. Show various possible patterns of implementation of a given action guideline. These patterns represent different general modes of action within a common intervention strategy.
10. As an aid to the practitioner, possible problems ("pitfalls" in implementing the guidelines) should be presented.
11. Useful avenues of attack ("tips") should be offered.

12. In order to promote and facilitate use of the action guideline and the manual, it is necessary to convey a reasonable amount of encouragement, reinforcement, and optimism in order to give the practitioner a pushoff toward utilization. If possible, such encouragement should include legitimation from colleagues (pp. 557-569).

When movement across the barrier between faculty member (theorist) and community learner (practitioner) is occurring from the practitioner end of the dichotomy, a linkage specialist role appears to be necessary. Analysis of data from this study indicates that it is unreasonable for practitioners to learn how to use data information banks and specialized vocabularies of research. Linkage specialists may include individual linkage agents or formal linking institutions and, according to Rothman (1974), can be described as follows:

> Linking agents are expected to have some intermixture of social science and practitioner competencies. They should be able to understand the language and professional set of each of the parties and to be conversant with typical problems and concerns of both. The methods of scientific inquiry as well as the methods of practice intervention should be familiar to them. Linking agents may emanate from either the social sciences or from the professions; they may be researchers with applied interests and commitments or professional practitioners with scientific inclinations and concerns.
>
> Linking institutions are organizations given a full or partial mandate to further research utilization endeavors. They may be composed of hybrid linking agents as described above, or they may acquire their dual capability through careful blending of personnel by recruitment from both practice fields and academic disciplines (pp. 572-573).

The linking function also is a major theme in Havelock's *Planning for Innovation* (1973).

A relatively small number of linking specialists were identified as operating through the continuing education and community service activities in institutions of higher education where interviewing was conducted. However, the function of linkage specialists has traditionally been performed by the staff of cooperative extension units. Title I projects had a larger proportion of linking agents than did traditional forms of continuing education and community service activities. Project directors sometimes served as linking specialists (see p. 134 on project staff variables). Faculty members with applied interests and commitments and students hired to coordinate field work in Title I projects also acted as linking agents in some cases.

In higher education the professional schools often link the institution with the community. The Urban Affairs and Cooperative Extension units of the University of California Extension system perform the linkage institutional function to some extent. Occasionally, community development centers that are adjunct to institutions of higher education were actively engaged in linking research personnel with practitioners.

It is apparent from the data gathered for this study that the gap between the faculty and the community learner will continue to persist until universities and colleges educate and hire more persons who can perform this linkage function and provide them with a stable rewarded career.

Types of Programs and Possibilities for Continuation

The fact that there are few faculty members or others who currently have the inclination or the skills to perform the linkage role provides a partial explanation for the small proportion of community-oriented or broker-oriented continuing education and community service (see Table 6). These types of continuing education and community service require that the linkage

role be performed. Higher education-oriented continuing education and community service requires the faculty to perform the 12 tasks for dissemination of research to practitioners which Rothman (1974) outlined above. Extensive evidence indicates that there is practitioner dissatisfaction when faculty members merely disseminate information without attempting to view it from the role perspective of the practitioner as learner. Continuing education and community service quality and impact are highly dependent upon the translation of theory into application and the linkage between the practioner and the theorist. In the opinion of the research team, the broker-oriented approach which incorporates the linkage function deserves more extensive development and testing as a means of bringing the faculty closer to community practitioners.

PARTICIPANT AND CLIENT VARIABLES

Interview data from this study indicate that participants and clients of continuing education and community service projects, including Title I programs have had influence in strengthening and continuing these efforts when federal money was terminated.

The Nature of the Variables

As noted earlier, institutions of higher education are experiencing a leveling-off or some cases a decrease of enrollment of the traditional 18-24 year old student. Consequently, "student choice" is exerting political and academic influence. Satisfied participants who demand that the institution continue the programs which are beneficial to them are creating a political force in most of the institutions where this study's interviewing was conducted. As the numbers of traditional students decreased and the pressure upon faculty to maintain their faculty teaching equivalencies increased, new types of students have been recruited and new client-oriented programs have been proposed. In the opinion of interviewees, these new types of students (minorities, women, disadvantaged and handicapped, the elderly, and the returning professional) have provided political support for continuing education and community service. Institutions of higher education have been asked by these clients, individually and collectively, to become more responsive, in providing both easier access and more relevant problem-solving oriented programs. The community colleges tend to be the most responsive to the "student choice" pressure. However, the California State University and Colleges also are responding to the "student choice" crisis in that they recognize the need to do more than wait for students to enroll in courses which the faculty is already prepared to teach. One administrator said:

> *The attitude our college used to have was to state that the door was open for those who wanted to take the initiative to come to the college on the college's terms. This attitude keeps people out. It is just offering bodies of knowledge. We have to reach out to tear down the walls that are separating us from our clients. It's what the Title I project is trying to do for us. It is not enough to say, "our doors are open," when the people are turned off to what we have been traditionally offering.*

Strategies for Responding to Variables

The potential political power which a large body of satisfied participants in a continuing education or community service program can wield has been used by a number of Title I

project directors in their efforts to influence administrators, trustees, and the legislature to continue projects following the termination or anticipated termination of federal funds. One community college project director said:

> *We have over 500 persons involved in our new program. We have political clout through the involvement of some of the most politically influential people in the county. We are about to tell the trustees that they should not monkey with getting us involved unless they have the willingness to carry through with adequate staff and program after the federal money runs out. One trustee was elected on a platform which promised this program to us.*

Two state university Title I programs have been adopted through additional funds provided by state legislature amendments and to the governor's budget. These amendments resulted from extensive citizen, client, and higher education administrative political influence. In one of these two cases, the state university system's student body president was actively involved in the effort.

One community college was having difficulty in getting a capital bond election passed by the electorate. Administrators hoped that their special continuing education program for senior citizens would have a positive influence upon the clientele and thereby insure the 600 additional votes needed for a successful election.

A number of project directors presented testimonials from their participants to higher education administrators and trustees. In other cases, project participants were encouraged to become members of agency and campus program advisory groups in order to generate support for Title I projects and to communicate this support officially to administrators and trustees. This arrangement also served to increase the amount of community input into planning. Another means of creating support for programs was through participants' word-of-mouth testimonials to fellow citizens. Occasionally, support from the general public was produced by press releases, film, and television. Several Title I projects gained political support through recognition in the national media. One project received a commendation through a resolution of the state legislature. All of these efforts tended to generate political influence making it not only more difficult for administrators to let the project die, but also more likely that alternative funds would be found in response to these political demands.

Participant and client political influence is most likely to be effective locally through the community college trustees. The data indicate, however, that not all community college trustees value continuing education and community problem solving. Some view the college primarily as serving the transfer student. A few project directors reported that this was the case with their college district trustees. One community college trustee, however, indicated a strong commitment:

> *If the community college makes its first priority that of serving transfer students, it will then serve only one segment of the population. I want community service programs to be equal and in some instances to have a higher priority than the serving of transfer students. It is really lifelong learning that we are about. We need to start where citizens are, with their interests and their problems and their needs. I was elected to represent all the people.*

Because institutions of higher education were under attack by politicians for demonstrations in the 1960s, administrators now tend to be more appreciative of positive public response to their involvement in the community, according to many project directors. The data indicate that projects which helped to construct this positive public service "image" were more likely to be valued and continued by the institutions of higher education.

Building on the political influence of participants and clients was for many of the Title I project directors a main strategy in generating support for the adoption of their projects. One project director summed up the approach with this admonition:

> *Get hard data that show participation. Generate community support. Get the support of the trustees through the clients. Build political support for continuing the project.*

It should be kept in mind, however, that political pressure from students has been found to be effective only in institutions where increasing the enrollment is a high priority. In an institutional setting where the maximum number of students has already been obtained, increasing the student enrollment is dysfunctional, particularly where teaching is of lower priority than research.

Types of Programs and Possibilities for Continuation

Although there are examples from the data that illustrate the political influence of participants in generating support for the adoption of all three types of continuing education and community service programs (higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented) there was considerable evidence that higher education-oriented programs were much more likely to be adopted. This is not only because of the political support that can be created for them, but also because these programs tend to be either self-supporting through fees or to receive average daily attendance reimbursement from state funds in community colleges, or through increasing the full-time equivalency in the California State Universities and Colleges. Political influence of citizens and of participants in Title I exerted on the University of California has resulted at best in an increase in students in a few self-supported programs sponsored by University Extension units.

Community-oriented forms of continuing education generally involve fewer participants, are less likely to get widespread publicity, and are more often concerned with learning which is considered controversial on the part of conservative governing bodies. Political support from participants and clients appeared to be absolutely essential in the adoption of both community-oriented and broker-oriented programs.

PROJECT STAFF VARIABLES

Another set of variables which was found through interview data to have had influence upon the strengthening and of continuing education and community service efforts was the type and status of project staff. It is very difficult to assess the extent of influence which these variables have had. Nevertheless, several issues were frequently mentioned by those who were interviewed.

The Nature of the Variable

A number of project staff persons were selected for Title I and other community service efforts because they had contacts with or could build relationships with community agencies or aggregate groups. Usually these staff persons were very capable individuals, and they were able to build programs with nontraditional clients, and in some cases achieving some political

influence. However, it was unusual for these persons to have academic status and credibility. No matter how successful the project was with the community, the personnel's lack of academic credibility tended to hurt the chances of the project's adoption by the institution. A number of interviewees reported that staff persons have had difficulty in gaining status with administrators and faculty. The following statement provides an example of this type of response:

> *We have done a good job in responding to the needs of the new students. I don't think we have done very well in affecting the institution. We have lacked status. Status affects the morale of the staff. In academic circles a person is recognized a lot more through salary and academic position. Our director here is a graduate student. He is on low salary. He has to work twice as hard to get anywhere. He is preempted and shunted.*

In many cases project staff persons not only lacked academic status, but also lacked status because of their part-time employment. Many community colleges employed part-time persons for Title I projects in order to avoid being obliged to provide them with permanent employment after three years. A part-time position indicates to everyone else in a community college that the activity is transitory or not important. Almost all the persons interviewed agreed that full-time staff, preferably with permanent academic status, provided not only a firm base from which to strengthen continuing education and community service, but also a base from which to negotiate and make provision for the adoption of the program by the institution. This is borne out by reports from some project staff persons who had the advantage of being deans or assistant deans. Several of these directors said the following:

> *There is no question about the fact that being assistant dean helped get the program going and to keep it going. It was no accident. If you are wanting to get a commitment for the adoption of a program, then you have to negotiate with those in charge through status.*
>
> *My being a dean and also project director has made it possible for the project to survive when attacked from other schools in the university. I have provided cover and status for it.*
>
> *My position has helped in making contacts with other colleges and also with the agencies in the community. I also have access to the president so that I can explain what is happening and gain his support.*

Our interviewee, however, indicated that if the continuation of the program could be negotiated at the beginning, then the status of the project director would not be as important.

Other interviewees also mentioned competence and charisma as important qualities in the perfect staff, particularly the director. The following statements are examples:

> *Make sure you get enough salary to get a qualified person to run the project. It should be in the $10,000 to $15,000 range. It's a danger for it not to get picked up later, but there has to be continuity and good staff. The director doesn't have to have a Ph.D. jargon. That won't cut it alone. But, the person's objectives have to be rational. You have to make yourself valuable to the institution.*
>
> *The big thing is the staff working for the project. They are doing a good job here. Personalities have a lot to do with it.*
>
> *When you have the seed money idea, what you are looking for is the credibility of the director. The director must count for something. We believe in the director here. He has our respect. We will listen to him and he can show us verification. He has credibility.*

Faith in the director is a big factor in getting adopted. Some directors may be successful outside and turn their colleagues off inside. The director can't turn the people off inside if the program is to get adopted.

I think that the people we have hired have status because of their personalities. The trustees don't want to be caught with permanent employees we can't use after the federal money runs out. So, we have selected people we can always use on our staff. These are people who are capable, well liked, and can fit into the mainstream.

The project has succeeded because of the personality and credibility of the director. She has built credibility with her personality.

Some of the women project directors expressed a concern that their credibility was reduced by their sex. One put it this way:

Our administration here is mostly all older men who see me as a young girl. They are encouraging but they don't take me seriously. Some of them don't even look up from their desks at me. They don't like women to be aggressive and critical. You have to anticipate and know what they are like.

Strategies for Responding to Variables

Several strategies and tactics for building the credibility and status of project staff in their effort to strengthen community service and continuing education were reported by those who were interviewed. Funding project staff at the highest level of the administration was reported as a fairly successful strategy. Sometimes those who had status or power were not full time, but their position provided the status and cover for others. Administrators with status who were designated project directors, in most instances, were able to keep their projects going after the federal funding was terminated.

Another strategy that was reported several times called for the gradual transfer of project employees from their "soft" federal funds to "hard" permanent funds from the institution's regular budget. The permanent institutional positions were designed to take on the functions of the positions started on "soft" money. This gradual adoption, position by position, was successful, especially in several of the community colleges and in a few of the state universities.

Still another strategy called for gaining recognition and visibility from top administrators in the organization. To do this project personnel often created public events to which such administrators were invited. They cultivated friendships with those in authority. They invited respected people from the community, from other campuses, and from the Postsecondary Education Commission to the campus. Visits from these persons provided a platform for the project personnel to explain their programs to administrators who otherwise would have ignored their efforts. Formal presentations sometimes using media were often prepared for meetings with administrators and trustees.

Another strategy called for the training of all project staff persons in human relations, public relations, and sensitivity to personal and institutional values of those with whom they worked and of those who had the authority to decide to adopt the project. This training, according to one project director, helped the staff to do the following:

We tried to find out what influenced the faculty and the administration and then we tried to share with them how our program could help them achieve their own goals. We tried to

be empathetic with those in authority positions. When you do this, it becomes clear where you have to go and what you have to do. We don't force our program. We point out what others need and what we are prepared to do. We would also ask for help in the solving of our problems. We learned how to get those in authority to get things from others in authority. We also tried to build our credibility by connecting what we were doing with what was cited as a need or called for in national or state commission reports which we knew were of importance to top administrators. It really helps in getting a hearing from top administrators when you identify what you believe in with what is in the literature. The staff training helped us to be sensitive to these dynamics. We now have friends in every part of the university.

One other approach to the gaining of recognition and status for the staff of projects involved the creating of advisory groups for the projects, composed of the president and/or presidential designees from several campuses where the same type of project was being conducted. This advisory group would meet at least two times a year. It provided a platform from which to share the achievements and the needs of the programs with top administrators who were in a position to decide for adoption.

Project directors were asked during the interviews what role they perceived themselves taking toward their institutions and toward their clients in the community. In a number of instances, to facilitate this inquiry, a theoretical change agent model (Havelock, 1973, p. 6) was used and the interviewees responded by identifying their own roles. This model is depicted in Figure 19.

Havelock's model (1973, p. 6) links the three roles—process helper, catalyst, and solution giver—with the change process which begins with a disturbance, moves to a decision to act, then to conducting a search for a solution, then to implementing an application, and finally to evaluating the satisfactions or dissatisfactions with the outcomes. If continuing education and community service projects which were funded from federal funds were not intended to be adopted and were seen as single temporary efforts in the community, then project staff needed only to be concerned with the change agent roles as they affected the community clients. If, however, the projects were designed to strengthen continuing education and community service in the institutions of higher education, project staff needed to be concerned with both the higher education client system and the community client system. The data indicate that the project staff who understood this dual change agent role were more likely to positively affect the continuation of their efforts. Very often when project staff concentrated on only the community client side, they were in most cases not successful in affecting the continuation of their programs. Theoretically, the selection of staff with change agent capabilities and orientation toward both client systems would be more likely to insure strengthening and continuing efforts.

Project directors and staff persons provided the following typical responses to the question regarding their perceptions of their change agent role:

We are organizers. But, I suppose we hold the flask that holds the catalyst. We have to start things. We make the arrangements. We bring the people together to plan. I don't see us, however, creating the disturbance. We build on the disturbances that are already there. We provide the resources, the advisory services, and information. I don't feel uncomfortable about doing these things. However, we wouldn't demonstrate, because it is frowned upon in this community. It would hurt our leadership image as having the respect from all segments and not just one group.

We have been in all three roles, but more in the community than in the higher education institution.

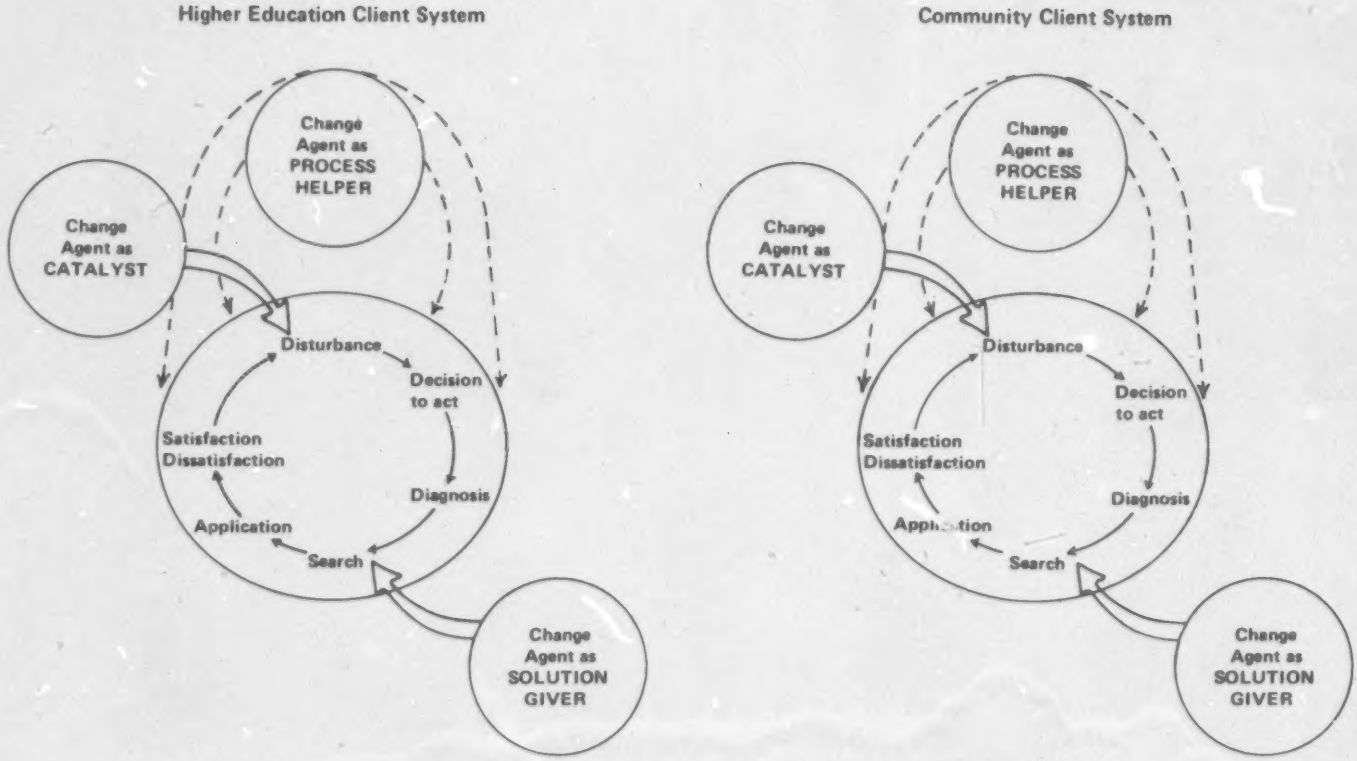


FIGURE 19: Three Ways to be a Change Agent for the Dual Client System of Higher Education and the Community

It's very difficult to act as a change agent in the higher education institution, but you won't get adopted unless you build relationships there too.

What we find ourselves doing most as process helpers is providing a linkage between the phases of the community client system and the resources of the higher education institution. You don't get anywhere if you are plugging in information or solutions in the form of higher education if the client system isn't asking for solutions. Sometimes what the client system needs can't be provided by the college.

I agree that we have to work in both systems. As director, I work the college side and the staff works the community side.

We found ourselves providing information to administrators of the college about the way community people were reacting and thinking. We were people who had our feet in both camps.

This last comment illustrates the most important function of personnel who are involved in continuing education and community service activities. Data indicate that institutions of higher education that lack a permanent cadre of faculty or staff involved in building networks of relationships in both the higher education institution and in the community are likely to be isolated and unresponsive to changes both in society and in their regular students. The career lines of academic personnel do not ordinarily prepare them for the community side. The career lines of community agency personnel do not ordinarily prepare them for interacting within the academic climate. The part-time, transient personnel of many community service projects build networks of relationships which are valuable for the institutions of higher education. However, these networks usually collapse when those who constructed them terminate their employment when projects are not adopted. In the judgment of the research team, the creation of a permanent staff of persons who have change agent capabilities in both the institutions of higher education and in the community is essential for strengthening and continuing community service efforts funded through Title I or other extramural support.

Types of Programs and Possibilities for Continuation

Interview data were obtained from project personnel who were involved in higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented continuing education and community service (see Table 6). Analysis of the data indicates that project personnel who were more familiar with and had roots in institutions of higher education were likely to promote higher education-oriented programs. Conversely, project personnel who were more familiar with the community client roles were more likely to develop community-oriented programs. It is the opinion of the research team that if community-oriented programs are to be increased, then it seems essential that ways be found to provide academic credibility and status for those who are engaged in community-oriented program implementation. It is very difficult apparently for community-oriented project personnel to gain access to higher education resources without academic credibility or status. Project personnel who implemented broker-oriented programs reported that it was difficult but nonetheless essential to develop credibility in both institutions of higher education and in the community. Administrators who were interviewed admitted that there were two persons who had this capability and that their careers were not currently rewarded. The development of community-oriented and broker-oriented programs therefore, to a great extent, depends on the solution to this personnel problem.

INSTITUTIONAL PRIORITY VARIABLES

Ultimately, institutional priorities constitute the most powerful influence upon the strengthening and continuation process of community service and continuing education efforts. These institutional priorities are usually expressed through public administrative statements of institutional goals and through official literature. However, the reality of these priorities is probably best reflected in administrative decisions relating the allocation of resources and staff. As part of the interview strategy for this study, the research team asked the interviewees to describe the forces or variables which most strongly affected the strengthening and continuing of the efforts assisted by Title I funding. Special emphasis was placed on those forces which affected the allocation of resources and staff. The responses given reflected six major institutional priority variables which they had felt had affected their attempts to strengthen and continue Title I efforts. These variables were: (1) maintenance of enrollment, (2) maintenance of academic standards, (3) support for meeting local needs, (4) support for public service, (5) support for public service related research, and (6) advocacy for social criticism/activism. Each of these will be discussed in turn.

Maintenance of Enrollment

First of all, a high priority of institutions of higher education as reflected in interview responses was survival through the maintenance of enrollment. There were few institutions of higher education where this was not a matter of grave concern. Where enrollment was declining, shock waves were felt throughout the institution. This situation was occurring at some community colleges, at a number of California State University and Colleges, and at several campuses of the University of California.

The effect of this enrollment maintenance priority upon the strengthening and continuing of Title I efforts varied. When Title I efforts were perceived as having little or no positive effect in terms of generating state financial support based on the average daily attendance and full-time equivalency formulas, they were for the most part ignored or given very low priority for continuation. They were allowed to die or to be continued through outside funding or through self-support from fees. However, when Title I projects were conceptualized, implemented, and evaluated so that they increased enrollment in institutions where this was a matter of highest priority, these Title I efforts received, for the most part, positive administrative consideration in regard to the allocation of resources which would permit their continuation. Responses which reflect the influence of the enrollment survival priority follow:

> *The decline of the regular student population on our campus has caused many departments to move in the direction of making community contacts in order to recruit nontraditional students.*
>
> *Our women's reentry program was hard to get started, but since the administration saw that it could generate average daily attendance dollars, they have given us more recognition.*
>
> *Student choice is more important now. We have to make our courses more relevant in order to keep up our enrollment. The Title I project has contributed to this through faculty involvement in the community.*

*This institution will only get involved if their FTE * (full-time equivalency) plummets downward and if they think that community service will help recruit students.*

A force that is positively operating in the area of continuing education is the tapering off of student enrollment. That makes the struggle more acute for funds. On the other hand, lifelong education presents a growth area and the university could rise to the challenge. In the short run it is not gaining. The long-run demands that we learn or fade away. Lifelong involvement in education is in the self-interests of the university. At the statewide level, there is a chance to develop general extension funds. But now, under the formulas, increasing continuing education which is self-supporting does not help the main university with its funding which is tied to a dropping enrollment.

This last statement reflects a desire to reassess state support formulas. This interest was reported as increasing in all three public segments of higher education. At the present time, state funding policies in the University of California and in the California State University and Colleges favor full-time enrollments. The community colleges, on the other hand, are growing rapidly in part-time enrollments. Many administrators complained that the discriminatory funding formulas reflected a lack of coordination and planning related to the state's approach to the part-time student. They recommended that the Postsecondary Education Commission address this issue immediately. One administrator who called for reassessment said:

We need state funding for continuing education so that it won't have to be self-supporting in the California State University and Colleges and in the University of California. The private institutions are coming in from out of state to expand their extended degree programs. There is increasing competition for students. Our extended degree programs are the way to respond. Some institutions may not see this and they may not change. Most are looking for new forms. We have got to get beyond the evening college concept. The continuing education student has been paying his own way too long. There needs to be a shift in state funding for continued education students.

Those Title I efforts that generated new students who could be designated as eligible for state support received positive administrative consideration for resources and staff for their continuation. This typically occurred in community colleges and in a few instances in the California State University and Colleges when Title I efforts were related to academic or student affairs administrative offices. Although several University of California campuses were experiencing leveling off or declining enrollment in their regular programs, the Title I efforts were not or could not be related to this priority variable because they were part of self-supporting extension units. Our interviewee at a University of California campus provided this explanation:

If we had been able to show that our Title I effort had in fact been responsible for an increase in the enrollment in the full-time programs, we would have been recognized and given at least some status. As it is, we can get no state support to continue anything we start. The verbal commitment to public service is a mandate without muscle!

When Title I efforts of the University of California Extension units generated self-support, they were able to survive as long as that support continued. However, administrators and Title I project personnel in the University of California Extension units complained that inflation had priced many of their courses out of reach for most citizens in the state, especially those who were most strongly affected by the greatest inflation as a result of unsolved social problems, i.e., the poor, disadvantaged, and minorities. Consequently, few Title I efforts were

able to continue through adoption by the University of California even though several of their campuses had experienced an enrollment decline.

In some community colleges and state universities, faculty members and administrators indicated that declining enrollments of traditional students (18-24 years) which necessitated serving new student populations was creating tension for some liberal arts faculty members who were originally employed with a commitment to an "ivy league" image of the college. These faculty members were reported as experiencing the greatest decline in enrollment, pressure for dismissal, and pressure for their professional development in order to enable them to teach in areas where there was greater student demand. Moreover, it was reported that when enrollment was threatened to decline, educational egalitarianism was more likely to become a reality through necessity. When a decline in enrollment was feared, there was a greater tendency for the institution to reach out to the community in order to recruit students and to relate courses to the demands of students.

Analysis of the data indicates that there was extensive movement in the community colleges and some movement in the California State Universities and Colleges system. Declining enrollments of traditional students has created some pressure for evening course work and extended degree programs where faculty members who would otherwise be underemployed can be used. Those who plan Title I activities in the future would do well to consider the relationship of their proposals to the high priority variable of institutional survival through the maintenance of enrollment.

Maintenance of Academic Standards

Another high priority variable among colleges and universities which emerged from the analysis of the data was the academic reputation of the campus. Colleges and universities tend to be very status-oriented, according to interviewees. Their reputations in research and/or teaching in the eyes of institutions with which they felt they were in competition were extremly important to faculty members as well as administrators.

This academic reputation variable affected the strengthening and continuation of Title I efforts in two ways. When the Title I effort was viewed as providing an enhanced academic or teaching reputation, it had a much better chance of being continued through adoption. However, when the Title I effort was perceived as diminishing that reputation by lowering traditional faculty standards of academic excellence, the Title I efforts were not supported by the institution and did not continue unless they were adopted by outside agencies. The following comments from interviewees will illustrate the effect of this variable:

A lot depends on the president and the faculty who are most worried about lowering the academic level of the traditional academic programs. They tend to see the Title I program as relating to students who are nonacademic achievers. Our trustees are mostly concerned about the traditional courses.

Some faculty members call what we are doing "sandbox education." I feel it's a matter of demonstrating quality control.

It is a real problem for us to justify everything that we do by it will be viewed academically. In order to get faculty support, you have to transform the project into an academic form. If you can justify it as research, it's okay.

The Title I project introduced the students to real life in the community through experiential education. Some faculty see this as lacking academic respectability. They are concerned about our academic reputation.

If our faculty see the activity as educational for the students and assists the students academically, they will support it as legitimate. If not, then it doesn't have much of a chance.

The only way we can get any credibility for involvement with the community is to make field education academically respectable. The academic standards for this have to be developed.

In a few instances, administrators reported that they were impressed with the fact that their Title I project model had been viewed as innovative by other institutions and that this had enhanced their reputation. When this occurred, Title I project personnel considered it helpful but not as positively insuring support for the continuation of their efforts.

Support for Meeting Local Needs

Data obtained from the interviewing also provided some insights into the extent to which continuing education, public service, and social criticism/activism were being perceived as high or low priority activities by the respective campuses.

In Chapter I of this report, reference was made to a study conducted in California that investigated institutional goals for higher education in the state (Peterson, 1973). In general the interview data from this current study parallels the findings of Peterson in respect to the categories of continuing education, public service, and social criticism/activism. In regard to continuing education (defined by Peterson as meeting local needs; providing continuing education for adults, providing trained manpower for local employers, and facilitating student involvement in community service activities, Peterson (1973) concluded:

> No University of California or California State University and Colleges campus is seen as presently according this goal any more than "medium" importance. . . . On no four-year campus is there unusual aspiration toward doing more in the way of meeting local needs. Interestingly, the CSUC Trustees, of all that segment's constituencies, are seemingly the least concerned about a higher priority for this goal (pp. 76-80).

The category which Peterson described as "meeting local needs," is roughly equivalent to the three categories described in this study in Chapter III as "individual, professional, and aggregate group development and problem solving." Support for these activities outside of degree programs in the University of California was reported by interviewees as minimal. The following statements are illustrative of this conclusion:

Extension is marginal but necessary to the image of the university. The university is exploitive, using results yet never supporting us. It's an unabsorbed ethic of support.

At the University of California, Extension is an appendage. Our Chancellor has no interest in Extension. He has minimal interest in the Extended University. We have it because we are expected to.

Interviewees at campuses of the California State University and Colleges, however, indicated that although there had been minimal support for continuing education at the individual, professional, and aggregate group levels in the past there was growing interest in these programs.

Peterson found that private institutions generally rated their current achievement in

attaining the goal of meeting local needs lower than did any of the three public segments, with several very low ratings which denoted very low involvement in the life of the local community coming from art schools, Catholic colleges, and independent liberal arts colleges. However, Peterson indicated that "people on every one of these campuses want change toward greater relatedness to their local communities. Except for their trustees, who tend to be more satisfied with the status quo . . . there is, in short, noticeable support for withdrawing from ivory towers" (p. 80).

Typically, the community colleges, according to Peterson, indicated that they considered meeting local needs as a slightly higher goal than did the other segments. This was especially an aspiration of administrators and community college presidents. This response may reflect the fact that the community colleges are the only segment that can qualify for state reimbursement for meeting the needs of adults in their service areas. Interviewees from the current study concurred with the findings of Peterson. However, there were a few community college campuses where interviewees indicated that outreach to new types of students was not always held as a high priority by local community college trustees. The following comments will illustrate:

> *I'm convinced that it's important to serve the adults in our changing community, especially those who have less education. I don't think that this is a high priority for our trustees, and our status with them on this matter probably doesn't count.*
>
> *It is questionable that our Board of Trustees will vote to continue the Title I effort which has involved minority adult students. The only thing they really get fired up about is football.*
>
> *Outreach to the adult population is a new dimension. The trustees are not sold on it yet.*

The community colleges in the present study were the only segment of higher education that fairly consistently reported that meeting local needs of individuals, professional or aggregate groups received recognition and status. Title I efforts in community colleges which generated new types of students (i.e., women, elderly, disadvantaged and minorities) were afforded a fairly high potential for continuing after termination of Title I funding.

In those instances where status was provided to continuing education at the individual, professional, or aggregate group levels, there was always a college or university president or chancellor who had promoted the activity. Project directors in these instances reported the following:

> *You have to have upper echelon here in this community college district. It has the involvement of the Chancellor and the presidents of the two colleges and other chief administrative officers. We are committed to providing a feasible means of access to students.*
>
> *The Title I project had the support of the president and the vice presidents from the beginning. The president wanted the project because he saw it building a relationship with the community.*

Support for Public Service

Both the data from the interviewing and the conclusions from Peterson (1973) indicate that there was even less support for organizational, community, and societal development and

problem solving than for meeting local needs of individuals, professionals, and aggregate groups. Peterson defined this category as public service: "working with governmental agencies in social and environmental policy formation, committing institutional resources to the solution of major societal and environmental problems . . . and generally being responsive to regional and national priorities in planning educational programs" (1973, p. 81).

Peterson's report concluded that none of the University of California campuses regards itself as giving especially high priority to public service. The rating of public service for all institution types compared to the other priorities was less than a "medium" priority. Only the areas of cultural aesthetic awareness, social criticism/activism, off-campus learning, and traditional religiousness scored lower as higher education priority activities. The public service aspiration, as defined immediately above, for the California State University and Colleges system was slightly higher than for the University of California. The system's Board of Trustees, however, would prefer no change in the importance accorded to public service as an institutional goal. While public service as defined by Peterson is probably not a realistic goal for community colleges, the support for it in this setting was almost as high as for the California State University and Colleges system. The lowest commitment to public service was in the private colleges. Among the constituent subgroups, minority respondents favored expanded public service activities the most and trustee groups the least (1973, pp. 85, 159-162).

The above category which Peterson has described as public service is roughly equivalent to the three categories described in this study in Chapter III as organizational, community, and societal development and problem solving. Title I project personnel who had been engaged in this type of community service and continuing education were, for the most part, very cynical about the commitment of the institutions of higher education to these efforts. The following responses are typical:

> *I have worn myself out. There is no interest from the top in working with external constituencies. It is lunacy.*
>
> *The status of extension is marginal to the university. There are no sources of continuing funding through the university. It's a miracle that we stay alive. The university doesn't offer what we need.*
>
> *The university has no real commitment to public service. The university only offers verbal, not financial, help.*
>
> *We should be helping to solve problems that affect the powerless. You have to nudge the university to get them involved. It's almost impossible without public funds.*

Support for Public Service-Related Research

The responses of extramural support or grant officers who were interviewed as part of this study indicate that there has been considerable support for public service-related research. In the Proceedings of the University of California Twenty-Eighth All-University Faculty Conference (March 1974), a Study Committee defined public service research as:

> . . . research recognized as a benefit (immediate or potential) in the moderately short run by public, governmental, or philanthropic agencies representing the public interest. Our choice also would limit it to activities that constructively aid man in enriching his life and society on this planet thus ruling out defense and most space research as a different order of service (p. 52).

The report stated that the extent of public service research activity could not be determined because a consistent systematic process of collecting this information does not exist within the University of California. The report estimated the three forms of state support of research are approximately divided as follows:

Unfunded Research (funded through faculty salaries)	3/4 basic and 1/4 applied
Organized Research from General Funds	1/2 basic and 1/2 applied
Restricted Funds	1/3 basic and 2/3 applied (p. 52)

In an attempt to estimate what proportion of University of California applied research could be classified as public service research, the report stated the following:

> . . . we can estimate that for the total University approximately 50 percent of applied research is public service (in our definition) primarily a public service to California, and only 20 percent is nonpublic service. Applied to the dollar estimate . . . this would suggest that about 64 million dollars is national public service and 38 million dollars is California public service (p. 53).

In addition, the reports of committees of this Twenty-Eighth All-University Faculty Conference (1974) acknowledged a significant degree of outside dissatisfaction with the proportion of university research endeavors devoted to important public problems and the degree to which research was generally related to public needs. The conference resolved to improve the university's response by expanding communication among the faculty as well as between faculty them and external groups and by facilitating access of external groups to university assistance. The conference recommended that: "(1) meritorious public service be one of the criteria applied in appointment and promotion, (2) conferences between public officials and university researchers be held, and (3) procedures be developed that effectively match external service requests with potentially useful research and knowledge of faculty members" (p. 61).

Analysis of the interview data from the present study indicates that although public service itself, as a priority, enjoys only a "medium" response from colleges and universities, the research arm of public service enjoys a much higher status. Title I community service and continuing education programs which have assisted the institutions of higher education in disseminating and utilizing public service research although few in number have had considerable support from both the agencies and from their respective campuses. These activities, usually designed as intended terminal programs, have had a catalytic effect in that they have stimulated subsequent activities in the agencies.

Advocacy for Social Criticism/Activism

Still another important institutional priority variable which was identified through the analysis of data was the extent of institutional approval of advocacy. The "reconstructionist" philosophy of education (Brameld, 1956, pp. 328-329) was reflected in statements of some of those who were interviewed. It was explicitly opposed by others. This approach urges educators to become more aware of education's responsibility for creating a new social order. Those who

hold this position encourage educational institutions to commit themselves to specific social reforms by becoming instruments of social change.

Approximately three-fourths of the Title I project staff made statements which could be characterized as favorable to the reconstructionist position. Administrators and trustees, however, were much less likely to support the role of the college or university as an instrument of social change. The directors and administrators of social agencies strongly advocated that the colleges and universities play a more active role in supporting the social change efforts of social agencies.

Peterson (1973) reported in his study that social criticism/activism (defined as the college or university providing criticism of prevailing American values, offering ideas for changing social institutions judged to be defective, helping students learn how to bring about change in American society, and being engaged, as an institution, in working for basic changes in American society) and that all constituents across all four segments perceived their institutions as attaching relatively little importance to this kind of goal. He reported that lay people outside of the colleges and universities tend to believe that there is greater allegiance in these institutions to this goal, although the differences are not large. Of the on-campus constituents, Peterson reported that the professors of the University of California and the higher education trustees and regents showed the least commitment to the goal of social criticism/activism. As expected, minority, less affluent, blue collar, and professional people fairly consistently rated social criticism/activism as a goal higher than aid their white affluent business counterparts who tend to be represented on boards of trustees.

The following statements from the interviews conducted for this study illustrate the diversity of opinion on the social criticism/activism issue:

> *Some faculty members from our college were involved in helping the American Indians write their lumber contracts. Some thought that the college should stay out of advocacy on the American Indian issue. I wouldn't have the institution take an advocacy stand on a public issue.*
>
> *Our present view is that we stay out of political activism. Some of the things we used to be involved with were too activist for our administration.*
>
> *I have avoided some of the issues in community problem solving. I would think that we have no business in messing with some of these problems like police abuse. The college philosophy has been one of saying, "it's not our problem what the students or the citizens do off the campus."*
>
> *The issue of advocacy was the most important thing we learned on the Title I project. We stood between the university's position of nonadvocacy and the community people's position of advocacy. We taught the people how to use the political tools of our society so that they could express political power and control their destiny. To some faculty members it was like endorsing Budweiser Beer. Title I funds should be used for controversial social change. You can't do projects like this without Title I funds.*
>
> *Our college last year sponsored a Health Education Fair. Over 7,000 people came. We gave over 5,000 health examinations. There were 110 agencies cooperating. If you could multiply that by eight colleges, you could get some real impact on the community. The college should take responsibility for getting people together to do what the agencies could not do by themselves. That's what we should be doing with all the severe social problems.*

Some administrators and faculty members expressed a concern that advocacy on the part of colleges and universities threatened their objectivity, neutrality, and academic freedom.

Other administrators and faculty members pointed out that responding to the demands of special interest groups tends to present colleges and universities with a potential for conflict of interest or cooption. On the other hand, still other administrators and faculty members argued that the university has never been neutral. It has for years assisted agricultural operators in the state while environmental groups and farm labor groups have complained that their social and economic interests were being slighted. Interviewees, for the most part, indicated that their colleges and universities were reluctant to become involved in extremely controversial social issues unless either a mandate to do so existed at the highest levels or a way to become involved without high visibility was possible. There was almost universal agreement among administrators and faculty members that the type of involvement should be limited, in any case, to an educational activity. Differences among interviewees tended to arise over how controversial they felt an issue was, how capable they felt the institution was to respond to it, how acceptable the client group was, and whether they favored the anticipated social change.

On the basis of the interview data, it appears that a social criticism/activism continuum exists. At one end of the continuum is the institution that is uninvolved in the name of preserving objectivity and academic freedom; at the other end of the continuum is the institution that is politically and economically involved with special interest groups and has the potential for cooption and favoritism. When institutions come to depend too heavily on outside funds from special interest groups, the direction of their public service tends to favor these groups. What appears to be needed is a degree of involvement which exercises academic freedom and objectivity in the midst of societal and community problem solving. This area of toleration is depicted in Figure 20 below:

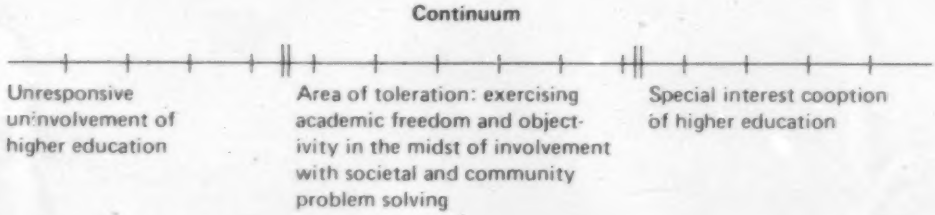

Continuum
Unresponsive uninvolvement of higher education
Area of toleration: exercising academic freedom and objectivity in the midst of involvement with societal and community problem solving
Special interest cooption of higher education

FIGURE 20: Social Criticism/Activism Continuum

Strategies for Responding to Variables

Title I program planning efforts may need to be deliberately planned so that the programs stay within the area of toleration in the social criticism/activism continuum. Analysis of data from this study indicates that when Title I efforts became too closely identified with special interest groups which were either unpopular or controversial, the higher education institutions tended to reject them. Conversely, when Title I efforts became too identified with the uninvolved low-risk stance of some conservative institutions of higher education, the efforts were viewed as wasteful and unproductive by the intended beneficiaries.

Project personnel and administrators who were concerned with the strengthening and continuing of Title I efforts reported several strategies which they had used or which they thought could be used in relationship to the institutional priority variables: maintenance of enrollment, maintenance of academic standards, support for meeting local needs, support for

public service, support for public service-related research, and advocacy for social criticism/activism.

Some Title I efforts were clearly intended to affect a change in priorities of their institutions as well as to benefit a particular client group through providing education to community problem solvers. These projects were viewed as high-risk projects because they usually confronted controversial social issues. The personnel typically hoped that through the project the institution of higher education would increase its commitment to public service. These efforts generally did have some effect on their institutions. The continuation process resulted through a catalytic reaction pattern. Nonetheless continuation through adoption occurred very infrequently when a clear intention to affect a change in institutional priorities existed. Examples of comments by project directors, who were attempting to change the priorities of their institutions, follow:

The project probably won't continue because the president and the board see the project as causing controversy and trouble.

We tried to change the university's willingness to become actively involved with those who were powerless. The response was good from some administrators and from some faculty, but the university ignored what we did.

In contrast, other Title I efforts were clearly intended to be compatible with the existing high priorities of their institutions of higher education. These efforts were usually continued through the adoption process. They also were in most instances able to avoid a rejection following adoption. The following remarks are from project directors and administrators, who were attempting to make their Title I projects compatible with the priorities of their institutions:

The project was adopted because the trustees wanted to do this from the start.

We managed to put the program together and to keep it going because it was what the president wanted. It was consistent with the philosophy of the college and the timing was right. It fit the institution's priorities.

The project and the college goals are pretty close together. They really are the same priority. I think that this will affect the continuation of the program.

The program has to make itself indispensable to the important tasks of the university. Then it will be hard to get rid of it.

I believe that the successfully adopted programs have to have a relevance to the support of the institution's main priorities and values. It used to be okay for a project to be off to the side to start and then make a bid for adoption. But the time has come for building in the midst of the power.

The most important factor in the continuation of a project is whether it is perceived within the institutional priorities. We are going to have to convince the board that what is being done is one of their priorities.

You have to find out the direction the institution is moving and what the president values. If the project fits, it has a chance of continuing.

A few of those who were interviewed recommended that Title I efforts be coordinated with the institution's long-range planning in order to establish the project's contribution to the institution's plans. These interviewees said:

The healthy way to do this is to have the institution make a five-year plan and then plug the federal funds into the plan in order to accelerate the growth of the plan.

You have to wire in the Title I project with the ongoing plans of the college if you want it to be absorbed. You can't get yourself outside the establishment, blame them, and expect to get adopted.

If the institution is involved in planning then the project has to fit the plan.

The two main strategies for strengthening and continuing Title I efforts in relationship to institutional priorities involve either attempting to change these priorities or attempting to become compatible with them. The contrasts are listed in Table 9.

TABLE 9
Two Contrasting Strategies for Responding to Institutional Priority Variables

Strategy I	Strategy II
Design a project which has the purpose of attempting to change the priorities of the college or university. The project will be incompatible with the high priorities of the college or university and will experience some resistance. However, it is hoped that the disturbance which is created by the project will serve as a catalyst for change. It is not expected that the effort would continue through adoption. Further efforts will build on the disturbance.	Design a project which is highly compatible with high priorities of the college or university. The purpose of the project will be to strengthen the college or university. It is hoped that the project will attain status without any resistance. A commitment from those in authority to continue the project through adoption will be obtained in advance. The support of the status leadership of the college or university will be built into the project to insure its not being rejected.

Although fewer than a half dozen Title I efforts in California were reported to have obtained a commitment for continuation through adoption in advance or at the time of the original funding, there were many projects adopted. Nevertheless, all project directors who were interviewed recommended that commitments be obtained in advance if at all possible. The following statements are typical of these recommendations:

What you have is a cash commitment on the part of the university from the start. It shouldn't be just "in kind" either.

I would not bootleg the project again. I would confront the administration head-on to get a promise to share the funding the second year and to adopt it the third year.

I would get everyone involved from the beginning. Let everyone know from the start. You don't do something and then try to sell it to them later. You try to get a commitment in advance for three or four years.

I would get administrative support before I started. I would help the administrators to see how the program fits into their objectives.

The grant applications should have the question on them that makes the proposer make a long-range commitment. It has to be specific and related to phases and segments.

An additional dimension, related to strengthening and continuing Title I efforts, was mentioned by a few of those who were interviewed. These interviewees suggested that the time

dimension be related to the compatibility of projects with their institutions' priorities. They indicated that the greater the incompatibility or risk of a Title I effort, longer it would take for that effort to be continued through adoption. If the effort was considerably incompatible, they said that it might take as long as five or more years of extensive funding in order to make an impact upon the priorities of the college or university.

Types of Programs and Possibilities for Adoption

When data relating to the effect of institutional priority variables for higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented continuing education and community service were analyzed, it was found that none of these types of efforts were highly compatible with the highest institutional priorities. However, higher education-oriented efforts were more compatible with institutional priorities than community-oriented efforts. In fact, the characteristics of each type tend to be in an inverse relationship to the rank order as determined by the judgments of the research team, of the institutional priority variables discussed here. This is illustrated in Table 10.

The reader will note that higher education-oriented efforts are more compatible with the highest priority variables, while community-oriented efforts are more compatible with the lowest priority variables. To the extent that higher education-oriented efforts were found to be making a contribution to the maintenance of enrollment and academic standards, and at the same time providing support for meeting local needs, there was a good possibility for their being strengthened and continued through adoption by the institution of higher education. In contrast, community-oriented efforts have provided almost no increase in the highest priority, the maintenance of enrollment. Community-oriented efforts are fairly compatible with the relatively high priority of public service-related research. Community-oriented efforts, however,

TABLE 10
Rank Order of Institutional Priority Variables According to Their Compatibility with Higher Education-Oriented, Community-Oriented, and Broker-Oriented Continuing Education and Community Service Efforts

Highest Priority	Rank Order of Institutional Priority of Variables	Higher Education-Oriented Compatibility	Community-Oriented Compatibility	Broker-Oriented Compatibility
↓	Maintenance of Enrollment	Partial	Almost none	Almost none
	Maintenance of Academic Standards	Considerable	Partial	Partial
	Support for Public Service-Related Research	Partial	Considerable	Considerable
	Support for Meeting Local Needs	Considerable	Partial	Considerable
	Support for Public Service	Partial	Considerable	Considerable
Lowest Priority	Advocacy for Social Criticism/Activism	Almost none	Considerable	Partial

have very great compatibility with the lowest priority—advocacy for social criticism/activism. These combinations of compatibility with institutional priority variables provide a possible explanation for the fact that few community-oriented Title I efforts were strengthened and continued through adoption. Rather, the continuation process which has been most characteristic of community-oriented efforts has been a catalytic effect on other institutional programs as a consequence of short-term projects. The broker-oriented approach tends to be most compatible with the priorities in the middle of the rank order scale.

FINANCIAL RESOURCE VARIABLES

As part of the interview process, the research team explored with each interviewee the extent and nature of alternative financial resources which could be considered for use in continuing Title I efforts in their colleges or universities and in some cases in the community. The interviewees also were encouraged to explain their experiences relative to the use of federal funds (more specifically, Title I) and the role which these funds has played in their institutions. Generally, the interviewees explained to the research team the nature and extent of their problems as well as the strategies which they had used or which they thought could be used to identify and procure alternative financial resources for continuing the Title I efforts following the termination of the federal funds. Findings from the data relating to financial resource variables will be reported as follows: (1) the nature of the financial resource variable, (2) the types of programs and possibilities for continuation, (3) strategies for responding to financial resource variables, (4) the role of federal funds in community service, and (5) alternative future patterns for Title I funding.

The Nature of the Financial Resource Variables

Institutions of higher education primarily receive their support from: (1) tuition or fees from students; (2) public taxes from a local district and/or state; and (3) grants, earnings from investments, or gifts from individuals or foundations. The extent of the availability of these sources for purposes of continuing Title I efforts depends to a great extent on the type of educational institution involved. The third source of funds mentioned above is sometimes referred to as "soft" money because it tends to be provided on a short-term basis and because its supply from year to year is undependable.

The University of California funding sources for full-time, degree-oriented students include state tax funds based on enrollment and fees from students. Extramural support funds (up to 30% of the total budget on some capuses) come from grants, gifts, and earnings from investments. Most extramural support funds are spent on research. The Extended University which offers part-time degree programs receives some state support as well as fees from students. University Extension programs have been entirely supported from fees since 1968. This means that in the University of California, all nondegree-oriented educational services for part-time students or for community problem-solving education must be supported either by contract, grants, or fees from individuals or organizations outside the University. Administrators in the University of California indicated that they had less than 10% of their total budgets could be considered discretionary, and that none of this money could be spent for part-time students or citizens. The impact of the above financial structure on the continuation process of Title I efforts has been significant.

The University of California Title I projects, with only two exceptions, have been funded through their extension units. The only projects that have survived and maintained their

connection with the University following the termination of federal funds have been those which generated funds from agencies for the training of their personnel. The agency funds, in these cases, came from other federal grants. In two cases, the Title I programs, developed through the extension units, were continued through adoption by community agencies. This was made possible by grants from the federal government to these agencies. When Title I funds were discontinued at several of the University of California campuses, the Title I personnel were dismissed, and the Urban Affairs Departments which had been developed under Title I efforts ceased to exist. The continuation of these efforts, however, through a catalytic effect on various state agencies and institutions has been impressive. For example, the Statewide Land-Use Planning Program on Open Space, cited earlier, focuses attention on a major societal problem and as a consequence numerous recommendations were formulated for municipalities, counties, and state agencies including the legislature.

The California State University and Colleges system also is supported by student fees (which are lower than those of the University of California) and state taxes based on FTE (full-time equivalents). According to administrators in this system, there is less discretionary money in the California State University and Colleges' line item budgets than there is in the University of California. Since the primary function of the California State University and Colleges system is not research, the proportion of their incomes provided by grants for research is much less than that of the University of California. External degree programs and continuing education programs, through their extension units, must be on a self-supporting basis from student fees with the exception of $120,000 provided by the state for fee waivers for low-income students. The impact of this financial structure on the continuation process of Title I efforts has been significant.

Only one Title I effort (a certificate program for agency personnel) has continued on a self-supporting basis through the extension units of this system. Three consortial efforts, developed through Title I funds, are no longer in existence. Three other consortial efforts which are currently being funded have some possibility of receiving alternative funds for their continuation from either the state legislature, through "soft" money from foundations, or through contributions from participating community college districts. Another three efforts are continuing through the use of discretionary funds from local campuses in the offices of student affairs. However, they have limited prospects for continuation by adoption unless a program change proposal is approved by the California State University and Colleges Office of the Chancellor and the legislature. This has been accomplished for one of the three cases mentioned above for at least one year.

A community development center was continued through a special addition in the state budget after an extensive effort was made to express support for the program by citizens and local public officials. A half dozen other centers which were funded through the Title I Act have gone out of existence. Although two departments have continued Title I efforts through adoption involving the generation of FTE funds, four other efforts developed through departments, have gone out of existence. The California State University and Colleges system has more continuing Title I efforts than does the University of California. This appears to be associated with the fact that approximately two-thirds of the Title I efforts in the California State University and Colleges system were not funded through continuing education or extension units as they were in the University of California system. Nevertheless, in both systems the self-support policy for continuing education and the line item budget tied to FTE have presented a formidable barrier for those attempting to continue Title I efforts.

The community college system in California is largely supported by local property taxes and state taxes which are distributed to community college districts based on a formula tied to ADA (average daily attendance) and the assessed valuation of the community college district. If the assessed valuation is high, the district receives less state money for each unit of ADA and

vice versa. In addition to the sources of funds mentioned above, the community college district under the *Education Code* is allowed to levy an additional tax of up to 5c per $100 assessed valuation for purposes of community service. These funds can be used for capital expenditures on facilities which are used by the community such as auditoriums, swimming pools, and tennis courts, and for concerts, lectures, and other cultural affairs including noncredit courses. The extent to which this tax is levied and the nature of its uses differs among colleges in the system, depending upon the values held by college local boards of trustees. Credit course in community colleges are free to students who are residents of the community college district. These courses generate ADA funds (Average Daily Attendance, *Education Code*, Chapter 3, Article 1). Noncredit courses may be financed from either fees or tuition or from the district's general fund. The degree to which general funds are used to support noncredit courses varies, depending upon the extent to which the trustees see specific courses or programs as worthwhile.

These locally controlled funding sources have made it possible for approximately two-thirds of all Title I efforts in community colleges to be continued through the generation of average daily attendance and/or district funds, including the 5c community service tax. Community colleges are more likely to continue efforts begun or expanded through Title I funding when their local assessed valuation is low and the amount of average daily attendance receipts from the state is proportionately high. (This formula has been the result of Senate Bill 6.) The reverse of the above condition has resulted in an adverse situation for continuing efforts in a few community college districts since most of the financial support must then come from the local taxpayer. However, nearly all administrators in the community college system favored the development of courses which generate average daily attendance funds from the state, including Title I efforts. Although the attitudes of local boards of trustees toward the use of local district funds for noncredit or non-ADA generating courses and for nondegree-oriented educational experiences was sometimes negative, the community college system clearly has funding alternatives that are not open to the other two public systems for the purpose of continuing efforts started under Title I funding.

The record of the private colleges and universities in continuing Title I efforts through adoption has been very poor. As far as to the research team knows, there have been no Title I efforts in these institutions that have continued by adoption. However, nearly all of them are reported to have been continued through a catalytic effect. Nevertheless, either stable sources of alternative funds were not found for their Title I projects or the programs were designed to be terminal in nature.

Administrators from all three of the public segments of higher education reported that their institutions were experiencing severe effects from inflation and depression. The employee demand for cost of living salary increases and the rise in construction and equipment costs, coupled with a decline in income from investment and private donations, has contributed to an adverse climate for those trying to promote activities requiring matching funds and/or commitments for the continuation of efforts after the termination of federal funding. This condition of tight finances has produced, according to interviewees, a decreasing amount of discretionary money. Almost all of the grant and foundation officers who were interviewed indicated that their respective institutions were becoming more cautious about grants because of the institution's increasing inability to support a continuation through adoption.

Types of Programs and Possibilities for Continuation

When the funding variables relating to each of the segments of higher education in the state were taken into consideration in relationship to their influence on higher education-

oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented continuing education and community services (see Table 6), the following generalizations could be made.

Although the University of California has the greatest capability for providing community-oriented continuing education and community services through its extension units, these activities are very unlikely to continue through adoption in that system following the termination of Title I funding. Applied research activities which were related to community-oriented continuing education and community service have continued through a catalytic process and appear to be a very promising use of Title I funding through the University of California.

Higher education-oriented continuing education and community service may be continued in the University of California, but only if the programs can generate self-support from fees or training contracts with community agencies.

In the judgment of several administrators in the University of California system, the broker-oriented programs have potential for being continued through adoption if a pattern for funding similar to that enjoyed by cooperative extension could be developed.

Almost no community-oriented efforts developed through Title I were continued through adoption in the California State University and Colleges system. Higher education-oriented and broker-oriented efforts have been continued or have promise of continuing through adoption either as a result of being tied to programs for full-time students or through receiving or hoping to obtain additional funds from the state legislature. However, higher education-oriented programs that have been continued through fees have been the exception rather than the rule. (Only two are known to the research team.)

There were very few community-oriented programs developed through Title I in the community colleges of the state. These few efforts have not continued except through some catalytic effects. Almost all community college activities funded through Title I can be classified as either higher education-oriented or broker-oriented continuing education and community service. As was indicated earlier, the community college system has several financial patterns that can be activated by decisions at the local level which allow higher education-oriented continuing education and community service. Theoretically, community-oriented efforts also could be funded through community colleges, however, the constraints of local politics upon local trustees tend to make the community colleges conservative about controversial social problems. These problems may therefore need to be solved on a statewide or national scale. At any rate, higher education-oriented continuing education is much more likely to justify local tax funding unless there is a widespread demand for community-oriented programs among the local citizens who have political power. The broker-oriented programs in community colleges have been very well received by the community and the colleges. Almost all of these programs have either been adopted or are being considered for adoption.

The private colleges have, for the most part, attempted to conduct community-oriented Title I activities. Sources of funds for the continuation of these efforts through adoption have not been found and, consequently, their continuation has been mostly limited to the form of a catalytic effect upon the local community.

Strategies for Responding to the Variables

If Title I personnel and their higher education administrators were to have any chance at all to have their programs continue, their first and most obvious strategy was to identify the potential alternative sources of funds. All too often this task was postponed, resulting in panic near the end of the funding cycle. Personnel, who were most successful in finding alternative funding sources, began their search early and included the senior administrators in their system

in solving this problem. The following list includes typical alternative sources of funding identified and pursued in the various segments of higher education in California:

University of California System

1. Tuition and fees from individual learners
2. Contracts for consulting and for training programs with agencies
3. Grants from foundations or from the federal government
4. Alumni funds
5. Associated student body funds
6. Faculty released time and/or administrative "bootlegging"

California State University and Colleges System

1. State funds through the generation of full-time equivalents (FTE)

California State University and Colleges System

1. State funds through the generation of full-time equivalents (FTE)
2. Special funds from the State University Chancellor's Office
3. Line item budget change through a program change proposal (PCP)
4. Discretionary department funds
5. Tuition and fees from individual learners
6. Associated student body funds
7. Contracts for training programs from agencies
8. Special state designated funds (i.e., handicapped)
9. Local campus foundations and private foundations
10. City and county tax funds and federal revenue sharing funds
11. Faculty released time and/or administrative "bootlegging"
12. Other federal grants such as EOP, Work Study, ABE, OEO, Emergency Employment Act, Department of Labor, VEA, and Veteran's Legislation

Community Colleges

1. State funds through average daily attendance (ADA)
2. Local district funds from the General Fund
3. Special tax override for community services
4. City and county tax funds and federal revenue sharing funds
5. Associated student body funds

With the possible exception of state funds generated through average daily attendance in the community colleges, the task of obtaining funds from the other sources was considered by Title I personnel to be formidable and, in most cases, nearly impossible. The task of preparing grant applications to replace Title I funding was time consuming and, in most cases, nonproductive. Nearly all Title I personnel agreed that the identification, collection, and dissemination of reports on the imputed and verificated consequences of Title I efforts was essential to the process of obtaining alternative funding. The use of statewide evaluative data was seen to be helpful when available. It was reported that credibility was increased through the use of the statewide evaluation of Title I efforts in California (Farmer, Sheats, & Deshler, 1972). The Postsecondary Education Commission also sponsored workshops for Title I project directors and published a Title I Newsletter for the purpose of sharing ideas and information that could be used to strengthen and continue the activities started under Title I funds.

Another strategy for securing alternative funds was mentioned by the interviewees. It can be called the collective approach. It required project personnel engaged in similar activities on several campuses to combine efforts in identifying funding sources and in preparing funding presentations. The interviewees agreed that being able to show widespread multicampus support generated more recognition, especially if senior administrators who were supportive were willing to persuade their more reluctant counterparts on other campuses.

Still another strategy involved separating from the general effort those parts of components of the Title I activities which could be depicted as eligible for specific types of funding. This resulted in multisource funding for a few of the continuing programs.

The Role of Federal Funds in Higher Education Community Service

When interviewees were asked to explain the role that Title I funds had played in their institution's community service activities, many used the occasion to explain how they felt about federal funding problems in general. These broad reactions to federal funding will be reported before turning to specific findings related to Title I funding.

The interviewees had several points of view regarding the role that federal funds had played in their institutions of higher education. Five alternative roles for using federal funds in higher education for community service activities emerged from the analysis of their comments. These roles are listed in Table 11 below, according to research team estimates of the extent to which interviewees favored each role.

TABLE 11
Estimated Interviewee Approval for Alternative Roles for the Use of Federal Funds in Providing Community Service

Alternative Roles for Use of Federal Funds in Higher Education Community Service	Estimated Percentage of Support
Acceleration of Existing Effective Programs	40
Developmental Continuation and Adoption Projects	20
Experimental Demonstration Projects	15
Catalytic Start-Up and Planning Projects	15
Emergency Temporary Need Projects	10
Total	100%

Typical responses that illustrate some of the positions listed above follow:

I think that the federal money should help us to develop new programs and to make the changes which we have decided are needed in our regular programs.

I would like to see the federal money come as a support for what we are already doing now, without artificial constraint. The money should be used to expand our effective programs.

The federal development money should be used to get the university to decide to release its resources in new ways.

I'd like to use federal money as acceleration money for our programs which are doing well and are promising.

I see federal money as great "start-up" money. We need "ready-to-serve" funds for planning and need assessment. The federal money helped us to know the needs and to identify the resources. It provided the linkage for us to get programs off the ground. It's a catalyst for the resources that we already have. It shouldn't be used as program money.

I'd like to use federal money for doing what no other money can do. It can help with emergency needs or short-term efforts which may be controversial but need to be addressed to somebody. Sometimes you have to do programs even when you know that they can't be adopted.

Interviewees reported several complaints about their experience in requesting, receiving, and processing federal funds exclusive of Title I. One common complaint concerned the fact that generally the federal funding cycle did not coincide with their institutional funding cycle. Another area of dissatisfaction was the lack of lead time for planning and implementing some of the federal programs. Examples of these complaints follow:

Federal programs should be funded on our fiscal year, not on an annual year. That has caused a lot of trouble for us. The way it is now we can't know what we can count on when we make our budgets.

The big problem is lead time for applications. I wish that all federal funding was like the Foundation for the Humanities. They give you guidelines one year ahead. The private foundations are the worst. They don't give you any criteria.

We don't like to touch federal funding because some programs are 12-month only, and our operation is in six-month cycles. Other programs also demand instant students and instant faculty. We can't hire good people and do a quality job on short notice.

A few interviewees from colleges in rural areas of the state reported that because of local political fear of federal control there was extensive resistance to receiving federal funds. Nevertheless, they did not complain of experiencing federal control through Title I.

Another typical problem relating to federal funding concerned the disparity between local institutional priorities and federal funding priorities. Three college administrators stated the problem as follows:

We need a better way to match federal funds with local needs. We need to find ways to implement programs that have both high local priority and high priority for the federal government. Colleges and universities tend to start with the federal categories for funding and write projects that can fit the guidelines in order to get the funds whether or not these needs have been identified as locally extensive. We can get all the money we need

for some things that are minimally severe. We have too little time to get ready to apply and when we get the money we are not prepared to spend it. We would like to have a system that would provide time for us to identify needs and capabilities, and then when this has been done, we would like to get federal funds to help us meet the most critical needs which are outside of our regular programs.

Most everything that you can get money from grants for is worthwhile to somebody. The problem is that it uses up our matching funds. The institution may have a high priority program but cannot get federal money to develop it. It can get money to develop a low priority program. But when it goes ahead with this program, it becomes more difficult to get the high priority program started since the matching funds are used up. We want to develop our high priority programs.

I think that generally our style for the future will be to identify our goals first, then go after the federal money rather than the other way around. We should only go after the money if it is what we want to do and are committed to continuing it in the future.

Reactions to Title I Funding Patterns in California

When interviewees were asked, more specifically, how they thought Title I projects should be funded in order to maximize the probability of their efforts being continued, they generally favored the way in which the Title I program has been administered by the California Postsecondary Education Commission. They recognized that funding priorities for problems to be addressed had been selected at the state level with help from the State Title I Advisory Committee. They also were aware that the California Title I State Plan was approved each year by the U.S. Office of Education. There were few complaints about the nature of the priority problems that had been selected.

The interviewees reported that they valued the Postsecondary Education Commission Title I staff. They indicated that the continuity of the state Title I staff was important to their efforts to have their programs adopted. The technical assistance provided by the state Title I staff in conceptualizing, formulating, and implementing programs was very much appreciated, as were the statewide and regional workshops for Title I project personnel.

For the last several years, it has been the policy of the Title I state agency to encourage continuation of programs started under Title I by providing funding to institutions, contingent upon progress, for up to three years. The interviewees supported this policy as a means of encouraging adoption. The reporting process, combined with site visits from the state staff, provided data for making decisions regarding continuation of funding. As expected, complaints were registered about having to take time from implementing projects in order to make reports to the state agency.

The most negative responses relating to the way in which Title I was being funded focused on the yearly uncertainty surrounding approval of the national Title I allocation by Congress and the White House. Interviewees were virtually unanimous in their view that this uncertainty had damaged their local credibility and had caused a great deal of disturbance in their institutional planning processes, especially when institutional adoption of a program was being negotiated. The interviewees appreciated the efforts of the state Title I agency staff to provide frequent briefings on the status of the Title I Act allocations at the national level. Nevertheless, all agreed that a more stable funding allocation at the national level was a necessary requisite if local project directors and administrators were to plan for continuation of their efforts through adoption.

Alternative Future Patterns for Title I

How should Title I projects be funded? This question was discussed with each interviewee. From the analysis of the data, at least six alternatives were suggested. They are: (1) the seed money grant, (2) the continuous contingency project grant, (3) the basic institutional grant, (4) the coordinated statewide project grant, (5) the cooperative state and federal formula grant, and (6) the division of the Title I Act into two types of grants.

Interviewees disagreed about the value of the *seed money grant.* Administrators in community colleges tended to favor it since alternative sources of funds are relatively available. Administrators in the California State University and Colleges system were much more skeptical about whether the projects begun with seed money could survive unless there was multiyear funding. There was little support for the seed money concept among administrators and project directors in the University of California. The following are typical comments on seed money:

> *Seed money is a bad image. I balk at it. Seed money gives the idea that the funding agency determines what will grow and all the institution does is provide the care and maintenance. I'd rather have federal money as planning money to decide what seeds needed to be planted and where and when. The institution should determine the crop. However, we can use support after this is determined.*
>
> *If you are going to have seed money, I think that it would be best to get small amounts of money over a long period of time so that what was planted could get a good start.*
>
> *The concept of seed money is a viable concept, but it has to be used by the institution as a whole rather than by one segment or part of it. The commitment has to be made by the whole institution for the long term even though on a short-term basis only one segment may be involved.*

Although there is nothing in the Title I Act itself which mandates a seed money concept, yet the two have often been associated with the Title I Act. The states, according to the Act, are to develop a state plan which may or may not include a seed money approach.

The concept of *continuous contingency funding* has been implemented through the California Title I State Plan. It calls for a continuous funding cycle of up to three years contingent upon satisfactory progress toward strengthening and continuing Title I efforts. The yearly review afforded an opportunity to demonstrate accountability through the documentation of beneficial imputed and verifiable consequences. Administrators and Title I project personnel, on the whole, found this approach to be more advantageous than a one-year seed money grant. The following are examples of their responses.

> *Millions of federal dollars have gone down the drain because the projects were too short term to make any real impact. The grant needs to be provided for at least three years or as long as it takes to show the approach is working and can be maintained by the institution after the termination of federal funding.*
>
> *The multiyear funding, which we have had, has made it possible for us to make an impact which we could not have made in one year. In multiyear funding there needs to be a clear separation between development, project management, and implementation.*

The *basic institutional grant* concept was mentioned by a few of those who were interviewed. Administrators and Title I project personnel from the University of California favor this approach which calls for a basic grant of $25,000 or more of federal funds to be

provided to each qualifying institution of higher education on a continuing basis. This approach has also been proposed by Pitchell (1974). According to Pitchell, institutions must have a minimum basic support in predictable amounts each year in order to maintain administrative continuity in an efficient manner. The basic grant should meet the following conditions and requirements:

a. It should be awarded only to institutions which have a commitment to continuing education and community service. That commitment should be measured by a 30 percent matching requirement along with a maintenance of effort criterion.

b. It should be awarded only to those institutions which agree to participate in state and national priority programs as identified in the state plan. . . . This requirement would be crucial to the success of the proposed Title I program.

In other words, the basic grant would assure continuity of funding to participating institutions without the inefficiencies and inadequacies of annual project proposals or the uncertainty of the proposal approval process (1974, p. 3).

Another version of the basic institutional grant that was suggested by two administrators was a federal education tax for postsecondary education which could be administered through a formula, possibly tied to student support for participation in specific types of community problem-solving activity through eligible institutions.

The *coordinated statewide project grant* was another concept that was proposed by three interviewees. This concept calls for the state administrative agency to coordinate a single, high priority statewide project for the use of Title I funds. According to the interviewees, the project could be divided into components which could be put out to bid to the institutions of higher education throughout the state. Emphasis would be placed on the impact upon the problem rather than upon the continuation of the effort in each institution. Those who advocated this approach favored it because it would make possible the concentration of effort on critical problems using the most appropriate higher education resources regardless of the type of institution or the part of the state. They also pointed to the advantage of phasing the effort and including the different segments in relationship to their respective capabilities and the overall task.

Nearly all of the university extension deans and the deans of continuing education who were interviewed pointed to the success of the Agricultural Extension Program. The *cooperative funding between the federal, state, and county levels* has produced extensive changes in rural America. The transfer of this model to urban settings is recommended by many, especially that part of the model which includes the provision for linkage personnel, who as faculty members could assist in matching higher education resources with community problems. The cooperative funding approach was favored by those who were operating broker-oriented programs.

Nearly all Title I personnel and higher education administrators who were interviewed indicated that the present state formulas for higher education did not facilitate the continuation of any type of education which could not qualify for state support through the generation of ADA or FTE. Proposals for state support for continuing education are emerging, according to some administrators. One proposal includes a sliding fee schedule tied to income levels. Another advocates state support for continuing education and university extension reserve funds. The following comments illustrate this position:

There is little in the state budget to encourage the continuation of any Title I effort. It would be a good idea for the state to fund projects on an ongoing basis after they had

proven their worth on federal funding. We need state legislative support for our efforts in urban problem solving. Under the present system you cannot get the freedom from faculty workloads to work on community problems. State support comparable to the Cooperative Extension model is essential.

It might be possible for us to adopt a Title I effort if we had state general fund support for university extension. Then we could make commitments. If we had faculty who were like the Agricultural Extension specialists with academic appointments, the two could keep a lot of these things going.

Opinions about the probable success of proposals for state support for continuing education and community service were mixed on the part of those who were interviewed. They unanimously agreed that state support was needed as a way of supplementing federal programs like Title I. They also felt that there was increasing support for state funding from the taxpayers. There was disagreement as to whether state support could be achieved in the present political and economic climate.

The *division of the Title I Act into two types of grants* was a concept that emerged from the analysis of the data and which the research team saw as an additional alternative. It appeared, theoretically, that higher education-oriented and community-oriented continuing education and community service (see Table 6) could provide a basis for differentiating federal funding. A division of the Title I Act, which clearly specified the use of funds for each type of education effort, would have the advantage of satisfying the various types of needs. Yet, at the same time it would insure that community-oriented continuing education and community service were supported since it appears that this type of education is less likely to be implemented without federal funds.

As expected, the financial resource variables were found to have an extremely powerful effect upon the continuation of programs started with Title I funds. The types and extent of alternative resources that are potentially available for continuing Title I efforts varies greatly according to type of program and type of institution of higher education. The most favorable financial conditions exist in the community college system; the least favorable are in the University of California and in the private institutions. Financial conditions tend to favor the adoption of higher education-oriented programs in contrast to community-oriented programs which receive the least alternative financial support. Broker-oriented programs are more likely to be continued through adoption than community-oriented programs because of the possibility that they might generate alternative sources of funds from both the community agencies and from the institutions of higher education. If community-oriented and broker-oriented approaches to continuing education and community service are to be fostered and continued after the termination of federal funds, additional financial resources from state or agency funds may have to be generated, especially for programs operating in the California State University and Colleges system and the University of California system.

RELATIVE EFFECTS OF MAJOR VARIABLES

In the judgment of the research team, the seven clusters of major variables that have been discussed in detail in Chapter V have been found to affect the strengthening and continuing process of Title I programs in the following rank order:

1. Institutional Priority Variables
2. Financial Resource Variables
3. Project Staff Variables
4. Faculty Support Variables
5. Administrative and Structural Variables
6. Participant and Client Variables
7. Community Organization and Agency Variables

The institutional priority variables are listed first because the extent of institutional commitment ultimately determines the implementation of decisions relating to the deployment of financial resources and staff and to the development of various types of programs. Financial resource variables have a very extensive impact on continuation since they provide available alternative resources. Although it can be argued that the selection of the type and quality of project staff is determined, to a great extent, by institutional commitment and the financial resources available, the lack of a capable, credible, effective project staff has been found to severely damage the continuation possibilities of a program even when there is strong institutional commitment and sufficient financial resources. The faculty support variables have been found to have considerable effect on the strengthening and continuing process. Since faculty members are the primary academic resource of an institution, their lack of support and involvement usually relegates a program to a marginal status with the resultant vulnerability to termination. Although the type of higher education program structure through which a Title I project functions was found to have some effect on the strengthening and continuation process, the variables listed above are likely to determine the structural/administrative location of projects at the outset of funding as well as any changes in administrative location that are made to effect an adoption. Participants, clients, community organizations, and agencies are the low ranking clusters of variables that have been found to affect the strengthening and continuing process. This rank order occurs not because these variables have no effect, but because their influence tends to be less organized and more remote from the centers of decision-making power in higher education. In particular situations, the strength of any one of the above seven clusters of variables could be strong enough to outweigh the effects of the others.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 (PL 89-329) has been implemented in California through 153 projects involving 287 institutions of higher education during the past nine years. The purpose of these projects has been:

1. to help the citizens of California to solve community problems and
2. to strengthen and improve the continuing education and community service programs of institutions of higher education

FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The California Postsecondary Education Commission funded the present study early in 1974 in order to understand more fully the nature of the strengthening and continuing process that has occurred in institutions of higher education as a consequence of Title I efforts. Of particular interest was the identification of alternative administrative structures, funding patterns, and other variables affecting the continuation and adoption of Title I efforts after federal funds decreased or terminated.

RESEARCH METHOD

A "naturalistic research" approach was used in the study. The researchers collected and analyzed data from the natural settings where projects had been established and were, in some cases, still functioning. Literature related to Title I (HEA, 1965) was reviewed as were project proposals and reports. The research team conducted 181 elite and specialized interviews with administrators, faculty members, project directors, and agency personnel representing 35 institutions of higher education and 16 community agencies. Three seminars that were held in conjunction with this project, involving 125 persons from different role perspectives, also contributed to understanding the nature of the problem. The data obtained from the seminars and from the interviewing were analyzed through the use of content analysis. This process is described in Chapter II.

PERCEPTIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The research team, attempting to understand the context of Title I efforts, found that practitioners in the field of continuing education and community service held diverse perspec-

tives on definitions, on intended or anticipated consequences, on contrasting program development directions, and on alternative interpretations of the Title I Act. Bases for clarifying each of the above issues emerged from the analysis of the data. These sueggested clarifications are presented in Chapter III. When descriptions of Title I projects were analyzed according to their primary learning functions, the following six categories emerged: (1) individual development and problem solving, (2) professional and/or occupational development and problem solving, (3) aggregate group development and problem solving, (4) organizational development and problem solving, (5) community development and problem solving, and (6) societal development and problem solving. The historical tendency of institutions of higher education to limit themselves to providing individual and professional development and problem solving was found to be a force that has confined the interpretation and consequent implementation of the Title I Act. The organizational development, community development, and societal development and problem-solving levels were found to be more difficult to continue through adoption than the other levels, although examples of all six levels were implemented through Title I in California. Upon further analysis of the data, three primary approaches to the development of continuing education and community service programs emerged inductively: (1) the higher education-oreiented programs, (2) community-oriented programs, and (3) the broker-oriented programs.

Higher education-oriented programs tend to: (1) develop from the basis of higher education resources which are then applied to client's needs or community problems, (2) emphasize individual and professional or occupational development and problem solving, (3) generate funds from fees and state funded attendance formulas, (4) embody priorities that are highly compatible with higher education institution's priorities, and (5) develop a high potential for being strengthened and adopted by the institutions of higher education when grant money terminates.

Community-oriented programs tend to: (1) develop from the basis of significant community problems for which educational resources in the institutions of higher education and elsewhere are sought; (2) emphasize aggregate group, organizational, community, and societal development and problem solving; (3) rarely generate funds from fees or from state funded attendance formulas; (4) embody priorities that are highly incompatible with higher education institutions' priorities; and (5) develop a low potential for being strengthened and adopted by institutions of higher education when grant money terminates.

Broker-oriented programs tend to: (1) develop from the basis of a broker who selects a range of societal needs and a range of institutional purposes and resources and then attempts to match these needs and resources in order to facilitate mutual benefits; (2) emphasize any type of program that clients and institutions of higher education can mutually agree upon, including professional, occupational, aggregate group, organizational, community, and societal development and problem solving; (3) embody only the intersection of priorities between the community clients and the institutions of higher education; and (4) develop a moderate potential for being strengthened and adopted, unless long-term mutual funding agreements can be negotiated between agencies and institutions of higher education.

THE STRENGTHENING AND CONTINUATION PROCESS

Following termination of Title I funding, program efforts followed one of the following patterns. Some Title I efforts were intended to end after fulfilling an appropriate short-term

need. Some efforts were terminated intentionally by the state funding agency because they were judged to be ineffective. Some efforts were terminated due primarily to the lack of available resources even though they had demonstrated their value and worth. A very few Title I efforts were continued after they were no longer needed. Still other Title I efforts were appropriately continued because their institution(s) of higher education or agency(s) in the community considered them valuable enough to continue them through inclusion, merger, or adoption.

A number of alternative relationships between projects and their respective institutions of higher education were inductively identified in relationship to their strengthening and continuing patterns. The analysis of the data indicated that:

1. When an existing program was expanded and there continued to be a need for the program, there was a high probability that the expanded program would be continued through adoption by the institution of higher education.
2. When an existing program was extended to new clients or new areas, there sometimes was a high probability for continuation of the program, depending upon the acceptability of the new clients, culturally or financially, to the college or university.
3. When a program was added on outside the structure of a college or university through the use of Title I funds, it was usually viewed as marginal and was, for the most part, not continued or adopted after the termination of federal funds.
4. When a program begun as an outside add-on through the use of Title I funds was brought into the ongoing administrative structure of a college or university and adopted, it usually was the result of extensive planning or agreement to do so in advance, pending the success of the project.
5. When a program begun as an outside add-on to a college or university through the use of Title I funds achieved independence, it usually was due to its becoming funded by voluntary contributions or alternative local, state, or federal funds which did not come through colleges or universities.
6. When an add-on program was adopted by a community agency, it was usually because the community agency was initially involved in the planning for the college or university Title I program and because the agency developed a stake in keeping the program going.
7. When an add-on program was adopted through a merger, it usually was a result of an administrative structural change in the college or university involving a redefinition of administrative responsibility or a reconceptualization of functions.
8. When a transplantation or substitution of a Title I program occurred, it usually was a result of successfully competing with other programs in a climate of scarcity of institutional funding.
9. When an implantation of a program occurred, it usually was funded as a high priority of a senior administrator and consequently, it had a high probability of being continued at the termination of the Title I funding.

The study found that in cases where interviewees reported that Title I projects had strengthened their institutions of higher education, they were referring to, in order of frequency: (1) positive reputation; (2) use of knowledge, concepts, models, and methods; (3) increased enrollment; (4) new networks of relationships; (5) trained personnel; and (6) new or improved administrative structures.

Three primary patterns for the continuation of efforts which started under Title I funding were identified through the study. They can be described as: (1) the catalytic reaction pattern whereby the project provided a basis for acceleration of change in the college, university, or community (For those who viewed Title I project efforts in these terms, the task of continuation became one of appreciating, conserving, and building upon the initial force which had stimulated the system.); (2) the adoption pattern whereby the institution of higher education chose to take as its own the function or program (For those who viewed Title I project efforts in these terms the task of continuation became one of getting the program accepted and then internalized by the system, including the identification and utilization of alternative sources of funding.); and (3) the prevention of rejection pattern whereby the institution of higher education and the program personnel provide protection, stabilization, and closure for the changes and gains made through the extension or expansion of the program (For those who viewed Title I project efforts in these terms, the task of continuation became one of preventing the system from falling back to its former state of balance.).

Strategies and tactics to affect the continuation process were described by interviewees. The following categories were identified from the data: (1) the personal influence strategy; (2) the political influence strategy; (3) the timely, important issue strategy; (4) the reconceptualization strategy; (5) the cumulative success strategy; (6) the information dissemination strategy; (7) the charismatic leader strategy; (8) the organization consortia strategy; and (9) the faculty rewards strategy. Each of these strategies is described in detail in Chapter IV.

MAJOR VARIABLES AFFECTING STRENGTHENING AND CONTINUING

Seven clusters of major variables and their effect on the strengthening and continuing process of Title I programs are identified and discussed in detail in Chapter V. The impact of each cluster of variables on higher education-oriented, community-oriented, and broker-oriented programs also is presented. The data indicate, in the judgment of the research team, that the influence of the clusters of variables on the strengthening and continuing process of Title I programs occurs in the following descending rank order: (1) institutional priority variables, (2) financial resource variables, (3) project staff variables, (4) faculty support variables, (5) administrative and structural variables, (6) participant and client variables, and (7) community organization and agency variables.

The following generalizations describe the conditions under which the continuation process for Title I programs is most likely to occur following the termination of that funding:

1. Continuation, especially through adoption, is most likely to occur when the Title I program is highly compatible with the highest institutional priorities of higher education.
2. Continuation of Title I efforts is most likely to occur when student financial support can be generated through state attendance formulas as a primary alternative financial resource.
3. Continuation of Title I efforts is most likely to occur when Title I project staff generate credibility, status, and support for the effort in both the institutions of higher education and among the clients of the community through facilitating the linkage function.

4. Continuation of Title I programs is most likely to occur when faculty support for the effort can be generated and when the program can be included in the ongoing academic functions of the institution of higher education.

5. Continuation of Title I efforts is most likely to occur when the effort is operated in a community college, in an administrative structure that has status, and when the institution of higher education is experiencing a period of expansion or is attempting to expand its services to new types of students through outreach programs.

6. Continuation of Title I efforts is most likely to occur when the clients and participants are organized to use political influence on the institution of higher education, local government, and/or the state legislature in order to gain financial support for continuing the program.

7. Continuation of Title I efforts is most likely to occur when community organizations' and agencies' interests are being met and when these interests are compatible with what institutions of higher education are prepared to provide in the way of educational resources.

8. Continuation of Title I efforts is most likely to occur when the Title I program involves an implantation into, or an expansion or extension of, an already existent, functional program.

9. Continuation of Title I efforts is most likely to occur when the funding level is sufficient to sustain a minimum full-time staff for a period of time that is long enough to demonstrate visibility and compatibility of the program with the primary activities of the institution of higher education. (The greater the incompatibility of the program with institutional priorities, the greater the length of time and the greater the amount of external resources that will be required to facilitate an adoption.)

It is the judgment of the research team that strengthening and continuing both continuing education and community service in institutions of higher education through Title I efforts has taken place in California, especially during the last three years of the state program. A number of the presently funded Title I programs are well on their way to adoption. This is partly due to the fact that the recently funded programs are more compatible with current institutional priorities and their funding period has been extended to a maximum of three years expressly for the purpose of affecting adoption. In comparison, earlier Title I efforts in California were, for the most part, not intended to be institutionally adopted and were less compatible with institutional priorities. Nevertheless, the earlier Title I programs were found to have had a catalytic continuation effect both in the institutions of higher education and in the community.

The earlier Title I programs in California tended to emphasize the implementation of community-oriented and broker-oriented programs which are more difficult to continue through adoption. If these types of Title I programs are to be encouraged, it is imperative that these difficulties be recognized by the state funding agency and that efforts be made to provide for the generation of alternative state financial resources.

In spite of the limited amount of Title I funds expended in California (in comparison to the total amount spent on higher education in the state), this study found Title I programs have brought about a strengthening of continuing education and community service in the state. Administrators, project personnel, faculty members, agency personnel, and program participants who have been actively involved in Title I efforts in California reported in this study that the struggle to strengthen and continue both continuing education and community service through Title I was difficult, but not impossible. In addition, the respondents unanimously agreed that their endeavors had been worth the effort and that institutions of higher education and citizens in the State of California had benefited from these endeavors.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONS FOR PROJECT DIRECTORS

1a. What have been the effects of Title I on your institution?

b. How strong was the community service and continuing education program in your institution before Title I funding?

c. What was your strategy for strengthening continuing education and community service using Title I?

d. How were these efforts related to community problem solving?

e. What type of change agent role did you play as the director of the Title I project?

f. How did you view this role in relation to the institution of higher education?

g. In what ways and to what extent has community service and continuing education in general been strengthened since the funding by Title I at your institution?

h. In what ways and to what extent did the Title I project(s) contribute totally or partially to that strengthening?

i. What factors other than Title I have strengthened continuing education and community service in your institution?

2. How are the research, teaching, extension programs, external degree, and regular academic programs in this institution related to the problems of this community?

3a. How have The Title I efforts related to the institutional goals and priorities? To what extent was the Title I project(s) considered to be high risk or low risk to the institution? Did this affect the task of getting the Higher Educational Institution to adopt what was started by the Title I project?

b. How did the institution of higher education view your status as project director and how did this affect you and the adoption of what was started or expanded by Title I?

c. How did the Title I project(s) fit into the organizational structure of your institution?

4. What did you do to strengthen the relationship between your project and your institution of higher education? How did the relationship develop?

5. What forces did you see operating which facilitated strengthening and furthering Title I efforts being adopted or persisting over time?

6. How did you go about convincing the institution of higher education to provide funding from alternative sources to strengthen and further what was started by the Title I efforts? Did you use documentation of positive consequences from your project(s) in that task?

7. If you were asked to advise another project officer of another Title I project on ways of potential strengthening and furthering of the goals of his project, what would you say, from your vantage point?

8. What would be necessary for what was started in a Title I project to be adopted by the institution of higher education?

9. How do you think Title I projects should be funded in order to maximize the probability of their strengthening and furthering the efforts started in them?

10. Do you know of any non-Title I federal- or state-funded projects which were able to continue what was started by them after the period of initial funding was terminated? If so, what caused this to happen?

11. What references explain what you have described regarding strengthening?

QUESTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATORS

1a. What have been the effects of "soft" developmental funding on your institution (teaching, research, public service)? What problems have you had with such funding?

b. What have been the effects of Title I on your institution?

c. What in particular has been strengthened within the institution of higher education as a result of Title I/"soft" developmental funding?

d. How strong was the community service and continuing education program in your institution before Title I funding?

e. In what ways and to what extent has community service been strengthened since the funding by Title I at your institution?

f. What factors other than Title I/"soft" developmental funding have strengthened continuing education and community service in your institution?

2. How are research, teaching, extension programs, external degree, and regular academic programs in this institution related to the needs of this community?

3. How have Title I/"soft" developmental funding efforts related to the institution's goals and priorities?

4. How did(do) the Title I/"soft" developmental funding project(s) fit into the organizational structure of your institution?

5a. Was there an intention for the institution of higher education to adopt what was started or is it being done as a result of Title I funding?

b. What type of commitment, if any, does(did) the higher education institution have to continue what was started by the Title I/"soft" developmental programs once federal funding has been terminated?

c. If what was started under Title I is no longer funded and has *not been* adopted, what did you think needed to be done that was not done to have the project continued? What forces were hindering the adoption?

d. If what was started under Title I is no longer funded by Title I/"soft" developmental funding but *has been* adopted, what did you or others do that made that adoption possible? What forces were helping or hindering the process of adoption?

6a. If it were possible to do again, what would you do differently from your vantage point in a Title I project in order to strengthen the likelihood of what was done under Title I funding being adopted by the institution?

b. If you were asked to give advice to another administrator, what would you suggest to improve the possibilities of the Title I project's being adopted in this institution?

7a. Describe your relationship (i.e., as dean) with the Title I project director. How did the relationship change? How did the relationship affect the continuity of the project? What actions on the project director's part or on your part might have improved this relationship?

b. What is the status of the project director in your institution?

8. What type of change agent role did you see the project director performing in the Title I project?

9. What did you see to be the value of the Title I project as originally funded?

10. How do you think Title I projects should be funded in order to maximize the probability of their strengthening continuing education and community service in the institutions of higher education?

11. Do you know of any non-Title I federal or state funded projects which were able to continue after their initial funding was terminated? If so, what caused this to happen?

12. What are the potential alternative financial resources in your institution which can be considered for use in order to continue Title I projects after federal funding terminates?

13. In what ways and to what extent did you get documented evaluative feedback on the projects to convince you to continue Title I efforts in your institution? What criteria did/would you use to consider whether Title I projects should continue to be supported by institutional funds?

14. What references could you share with us regarding this whole phenomena of strengthening a higher education institution's ability to do community service?

QUESTIONS FOR FACULTY

1a. What have been the effects of Title I on your institution?

b. What has been the nature and extent of your involvement in your institution's Title I efforts?

c. How did you become involved in your institution's Title I efforts?

2a. How strong was the community service and continuing education program in your institution before Title I funding?

b. What was your strategy for strengthening continuing education and community service using Title I?

c. How were these efforts related to community problem solving?

d. What types of change agent role did the Title I project director play?

e. How did you view this role in relation to the institution of higher education?

f. In what ways and to what extent has community service and continuing education in general been strengthened since the funding by Title I at your institution?

g. In what ways and to what extent did the Title I project(s) contribute totally or partially to that strengthening?

h. What factors other than Title I have strengthened continuing education and community service in your institution?

3. How are the research, teaching, extension programs, external degree, and regular academic programs of this institution related to the problems of this community?

4a. How do the Title I efforts relate to your institution's goals and priorities?

b. Where do Title I projects fit into the organizational structure of your institution? What bearing did/does/could this have on the success or failure of the project(s) to be sustained by your institution after Title I funding has been terminated or curtailed?

c. What forces help or hinder the strengthening of community service efforts in your institution?

5a. What are the rewards or benefits for faculty who are involved in community service?

b. What is the general attitude of faculty at your institution toward involvement in community service efforts?

c. What type of involvement with community agencies, professions, or target populations is most likely to be viewed favorable by faculty in your institution?

d. What are some strategies involved in gaining faculty support and commitment to strengthen community service efforts in your institution?

e. What have you done to help the Title I project gain support or recognition from other members of the faculty?

6a. What is the relationship between faculty and the Title I project director?

b. What is the status of the project director? How did/does/could his/her level of status affect the possibilities of the project becoming an integral part of this institution?

7. If it were possible to do again or if you were asked to give advice to another faculty member, what would you suggest to improve the possibilities of the Title I project(s) becoming an integral part of this institution?

8. What references could you share with us regarding this whole phenomena of strengthening a higher education institution's ability to do community service?

QUESTIONS FOR STUDENTS

1a. What have been the effects of Title I on your institution?

b. What has been the nature and extent of your involvement in your institution's Title I efforts? What have you been doing?

c. How and why did you become involved in the Title I project?

2a. What do you see as the purpose of the Title I activities as they relate to continuing education and community service in your institution?

b. How are the teaching, external degree, and extension programs in your institution related to problem solving in the community?

3a. What do you see as the benefits of the project for the students?

b. How does the project relate to student academic programs? Academic credit?

c. How does the project provide opportunities for learning experiences outside the classroom?

d. How and to what extent has the project changed the academic curriculum?

4a. How do the Title I efforts relate to your institution's goals and priorities as you perceive them?

b. What forces help or hinder the strengthening of community service efforts in your institution?

5a. What is the general attitude of students at your institution toward involvement in community service efforts?

b. What strategies have been used or could be used in gaining student support and commitment to strengthen community service efforts in your institution?

c. What have you done to help the Title I project gain support from other students on your campus?

QUESTIONS FOR GRANTS OFFICERS

1. How does your institution handle "soft" developmental funding and the projects implemented through it?
2. What is the role of your office in administrating extramural funding?
3. What is the scope of the extramural funding which is received by your institution? For what is it primarily used?
4. How does this extramural funding affect the institution?
5. How do you view the faculty in their relation to developmental money from outside sources?
6. Do you know of any projects that have been institutionalized, continued, or adopted following the termination of outside funding?
7. How do you use the money which is taken for institutional overhead? Does any of it go for community service projects?
8. Which faculty members or administrators know most about the process of taking soft developmental money and bringing about an adoption or institutional change through it?
9. How have the funding agencies changed or shifted in their funding patterns over the last few years and how has this affected your institution?
10. What do you see as the affect of Title I funding on your institution and on your community?

QUESTIONS FOR AGENCY DIRECTORS

1. What has been the nature and extent of your past contract with colleges and universities

in your efforts to use their resources through your agency to assist the citizens in solving community problems?

2. What types of resources have you received from institutions of higher education? How helpful have these resources been to your agency?

3. What type of resources would you most like to receive from institutions of higher education?

4. What are some of the forces which are either helping or hindering your relationship with institutions of higher education in the solving of community problems through educational efforts?

5. What are your proposals for the development of closer relationships between agencies and the institutions of higher education?